A Study of PERSONALITY

and its relation to

SALESMANSHIP

by

ARTHUR H. HOLMES

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"Service is the new policy of the business world."

The best results of education are appreciation, high standards, and strong, well-reasoned purposes.

PREFACE

The chief purpose of this work is to deal with the analysis, self-development, and certain uses of personality, and with those principles of salesmanship which are capable of general application in the selling of goods and services.

The principal divisions of the book are The Trend of Business, Getting into Business, The Self-Development of Personality, Buying, Selling, and Advertising. The first of these is discussed because some of the fundamental ideas of business are rapidly changing, and he who is preparing for any line of business should be familiar with the general trend. The second is of value to those who will soon wish to put their theory into practice, and to those who wish to advance in the business in which they are now engaged. The importance of the development of right personality by the self is evidenced by the increasing emphasis that is given to the subject in business literature. Buying and selling are parts of the same unit, a business transaction, and knowledge of the one is supplemented by knowledge of the other. Advertising, a part of selling, is treated in outline only. The treatment, however, is sufficient to show the field to those to whom it may be especially attractive, to develop ability in the simpler forms of advertising, and to enable those who may become salesmen to take an intelligent interest in what is advertised concerning their goods.

In the section on salesmanship, many of the principles and methods presented are merely those that have long been used more or less consciously by successful salesmen. It is only in recent years, however, that these principles and methods have been organized, that they have been made a part of the science of selling. The modern demand for efficiency has caused salesmanship to be analyzed and reorganized. Certain ideas and practices that were formerly considered good or necessary have been discarded, and new, strong, well-based ideas and methods have taken their place. Much of the material for the work in this part has come from the experience of those who are in the field, those whose business it is to sell goods and services. The ideas of these men serve to mark the progress of salesmanship as a science, and to show the consensus of opinion as to the right way to sell. In great part, the material for the work in advertising has been obtained from similar sources.

The writer is grateful to those whose work he has drawn upon. Their strong and pertinent thoughts go far toward establishing a standard of truth, and often serve briefly to outline a discussion and to relieve the monotony of the repetition that is needed to impress an idea.

In the preparation of this work valuable assistance has been rendered by business men and by teachers.

THE AUTHOR.

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PART I

THE TREND OF BUSINESS

Education and a growing appreciation of the value of good will have raised commercial standards.

Analysis.

Analysis is separation into parts. The purpose of analysis in business is to show the relation of parts to one another and to the whole. This process is necessary to determine what is good, and what should be improved or replaced. "Productive labor," says Dr. Charles W. Eliot, "deals with facts, and is productive only so far as it conforms to the truth of things." In arriving at such truth, analysis is indispensable.

Changes in business conditions require changed methods. What was competent ten years ago may result in partial or complete failure today. Like man himself, business, an expression of man, should be adaptable. *Success is adaptation to truth.* The truth must come first, and it comes largely through the process of analysis.

Readjustment.

In its endeavor to adapt itself to truth, the world is in rapid process of readjustment. In business the central idea of readjustment is efficiency. Some of the more important ideas that are grouped around this are expressed by the words honesty, character, preparation, analysis, service, good will, permanence,

and success with a modification of its usually accepted meaning.

Business is becoming in a true sense a profession. It is passing out of the stage of chance into that of the comparative certainty made possible by a knowledge of scientific methods. On moral as well as on purely politic grounds, it is gradually working out of the stage where the general purpose was to get as much and to give as little as possible, into that phase of its development where a main idea is to give service for service.

The Upward Trend.

Evidence is not lacking to show that the ethical trend of business is decidedly upward. This trend is the logical result of analytical thought and of the attempt to realize efficiency.

Notable among the business phases that indicate the upward trend is the one-price system. Today, in nearly all retail stores, goods are sold at the same price to all purchasers. In former days, difference in buyers often meant a difference in price. If the price to some buyers was too low, the amount below the normal had to be made up at the expense of other buyers. The merchant's existence as a merchant is dependent upon his customers, and this places upon him the obligation to deal with them fairly. Under ordinary conditions any variation from the one-price system is unjust.

Another marked improvement in trade conditions is shown in the tendency toward honest advertising and selling. Some mercantile houses give definite orders that all advertisements shall be true, and that

there must be no misrepresentation in any phase of selling. This movement, initiated by leaders in trade, rests upon the higher ethics that is coming into business and upon the interests of trade permanence. Supported by these, it seems safe to say that the movement is destined to become general. Included in honest selling is the idea of good merchandise at actual value. This means that unserviceable goods must more and more give place to those that will satisfy the demands of fair exchange.

Other upward tendencies might be dwelt upon—the increase of courtesy in business, the purposeful cultivation of good will, the more considerate treatment of employees than was formerly given them, and so on—but these topics are reserved for consideration elsewhere. Attention is directed to one more movement, not so great in its ethical aspects as those preceding, but far-reaching in its effects.

Our people in general are careless buyers and sellers. In our country many kinds of business have been unusually productive. Wages and profits have been comparatively high. On the whole, money has come and gone easily. As a result, there has been developed among us a careless habit of trade. Most of the conditions which caused this have passed, or are passing. With more nearly normal circumstances come greater care in expenditure by buyers, and more careful selling by those who realize the importance of making trade permanent.

Business Efficiency.

In its highest form, efficiency in business means the best accomplishment with the least possible use

of time, effort, and investment. In a practical sense, it is the accomplishment of a proper amount of work through a suitable use of time and means.

The Need of Efficiency.

We have only to observe in order to understand that there is need of increased efficiency. The material well-being of the great majority of those who constitute society depends upon a large product economically produced and distributed. If it costs too much to produce a gas range, and too much to get it from producer to consumer, many people who should have gas ranges will be obliged to do without them. If the wants of people are to be even fairly well satisfied there must be efficient use of capital, and efficiency of labor, both physical and mental. Statistics show that these requirements have not been adequately met. On the authority of Bradstreet's Journal, it is said that 82% of the business failures in the United States in a recent year can be attributed to the unfitness of those who failed. It has, moreover, been estimated that the factories in our country are producing about one-half as much as they could produce if their work were efficiently done. The need for the development of efficiency is urgent. There is need of more trained men to organize business, to manage business, to train others for business, and in various other ways to conduct business on the higher professional and ethical plane toward which it is clearly tending.

The Increase of Efficiency.

Today we hear much in regard to increased efficiency; the more than trebling of a traditional day's

work through scientific direction, the reorganization of great industries by skilled men outside of the business, and the introduction of new economies, the outcome of enlightened self-interest. Through expert direction, men handling pig iron raised their average day's work from twelve to forty-seven and one-half tons; brick layers laid 2,700 bricks a day instead of 1,000; and, according to estimate, a great railway system saved in its operating expenses for three years the sum of $5,000,000.

The Inefficient.

Fifty per cent men are not wanted; they are merely tolerated, and that because of the lack of better men to do their work. In times of depression, such men are the first to be thrown out of work; and when business improves, they are the last to find employment.

Reactions Against the Efficiency Movement.

There are occasional evidences of reaction against the efficiency movement. It is truthfully said that an increase of efficiency in any line of work decreases the supply of that work in proportion to the demand for it. The same argument has been used against labor-saving machinery, yet the benefits of such machinery cannot be doubted. Any device that lessens effort in production tends to decrease temporarily the demand for labor; but it tends also to lessen the cost of products, to stimulate demand for them, and thus eventually to widen the field of labor. When the linotype was introduced, it decreased the demand for typesetters. However, as it lessened the cost of printing, the price of publications was lowered, de-

mand for them was increased, and, within a brief period, there was a greater supply of work in the publishing business than ever before. Similar results will come from real efficiency in business. On behalf of labor, moreover, it is claimed that those who by reason of new methods do double work, should receive double pay. That is evidently a narrow view. It may be that a just division of the increased product has not been reached; but it is clear that a share of the increase belongs to those who through thought and experiment made it possible. This is not a question of efficiency, but of the sharing of its results. The decreased cost of production, furthermore, entitles the consumer, without whom business could not be carried on, to a lower price on the product.

Against objections like these efficiency will stand. Not all that passes under the name of efficiency, however, is so secure. In the attempt to obtain maximum results in mimimum time, employers may drive themselves or their men, or both, beyond the limits of endurance. That is not efficiency, but its opposite. Efficiency demands conservation. Efficiency is a means, not an end—a means for the satisfaction of human needs, certainly not for the destruction of those whose needs it is supposed to supply. Business is an institution of man made for man. Misuse of the human machine by master or by man is not efficiency.

Service.

"Success must build itself on service."

The essence of business is service; without service business would cease to exist. Service is so related

to business that "he profits most who serves best." This has become a trade maxim concerning profit, the mainspring of business itself.

Good Will in Business.

Service is essential to the cultivation and retention of good will in trade. The good will of a business used to be a rather indefinite something, heard of once in a while in a legal connection. If, for example, a merchant sold his stock of goods to another, he sometimes entered into a written agreement that he would not again go into the same line of business in the same vicinity, or that he would not engage in it for a stated number of years. In this way he was said to transfer the good will of the business. This good will was the same kind as that of which we hear so much in connection with business in recent years. In the limited sense in which the term is here used, good will consists of the friendliness, kindly feeling, and habit that have grown up in relation to a business, and that tend toward the retention and the increase of trade. It is, in part, transferable by the owner of the business, and may become a valuable asset to his successor.

Today, the "good will" feature of business is greatly emphasized. It is something to be cultivated through service, permanent location, trade names, trade marks, and firm names of long standing. It is something to rely upon for future trade, something which at times acquires a value greater than all other features of the business combined. "The whole structure of business rests upon the good will of the community."

Good Will and Business Permanence.

To a considerable extent, the prominent idea in business has been to make immediate profit without due regard to the lasting effect of the way in which it was made. In merchandising, for example, this idea has found expression in exaggerated and fraudulent advertising, and in sales that were intentionally deceptive in regard to quality of goods, or to their suitability in kind or quantity.

Now, however, the value of permanence in business is generally recognized, and acts and methods that are detrimental to it are becoming gradually less common. As a usual thing, plans are carefully made to render service that will create and maintain good will, and thus cause a continuance of trade.

Success.

Man is acquiring a new understanding of success. Our idea of what constitutes success is a determining factor in the plans that we make, and the efforts that we put forth to bring them to fulfillment. Much of the real worth of living and working has its source in our thought of what it is to succeed.

Definition of Success.

What, then, is success? In a sense, it is possible to succeed in bad and unworthy undertakings; but as that is failure more or less serious, such a use of the term may be eliminated. Interpreted as an ideal to be greatly desired and worked for, *success is fulfillment of obligation to oneself and to others.*

The definition is universal, but it serves as a test of ideas that are limited. Is it success to store up knowledge and be content? Is it success to become

an efficient money-maker, and but little more? Is it success to acquire power or recognition in ways that are unjust? Is it success to develop the body to a high degree of perfection, and, in so doing, leave the mind at a low level? Is it success to give so much energy to the training of the mind that the body is left unfit for the business of life? Thus we may ask concerning any idea of success, and decide whether its working out meets the requirements of human obligation, of self-development, and of service due to our fellowmen.

Measures of Success.

The individual measure of success is the degree in which one does what it is possible for him to do toward his highest development. That measure is variable; it is not the same for any two individuals. One person may do his best and yet not do so well as another who has greater ability. The general measure of success may be said to be the degree of advancement in the scale of being, of progress toward perfection. The measures of success are general, but applicable. Everyone has ideas of human obligation and of the scale of being. Vague though these ideas may be, dwelling upon them increases their definiteness. By use they become familiar and capable of an ever widening application.

QUESTIONS AND TOPICS.

1. What two things have raised commercial standards?
2. a. What is analysis?
   b. What is the purpose of analysis?

c. Why is analysis necessary in business?
3. a. Why should business be adaptable?
b. Relation between business and truth.
4. a. The central idea of business readjustment.
b. Ideas grouped around the central idea of business readjustment.
5. a. Business becoming a profession.
b. What is the new policy of the business world?
6. What is the cause of the upward trend in business?
7. a. The one-price system.
b. Why is the merchant under obligation to deal fairly with his customers?
8. a. What is the attitude of some great mercantile houses toward advertising and selling?
b. What is the tendency in regard to unserviceable goods?
9. Other upward tendencies.
10. Careless buying and selling.
11. Definition of business efficiency.
12. a. Need of efficiency.
b. Need of more trained men.
13. Increase of efficiency. Give examples.
14. The inefficient.
15. a. Efficiency as related to supply of work.
b. Double work and double pay.
16. Over-driving and efficiency.
17. Relation between service and business success.
18. Definition of business good will.
19. How may good will be cultivated?
20. What has been the prominent idea in business?
21. Why is our idea of success important?
22. What is success?

23. Test of ideas of success.
24. a. Individual measure of success.
    b. General measure of success.
    c. Application of measures of success.

PART II

GETTING INTO BUSINESS

"One of the profoundest needs of our nature is work—work great enough and significant enough to call out our full powers and to absorb us."

DR. HENRY CHURCHILL KING.

The right work is that which will bring the right reward, a reward that is measured not alone in wealth and social esteem, but also in service, character, and satisfaction.

Getting into business means two things—a start and a progression, with the second largely dependent upon the judgment with which the first is made.

Business Opportunity.

In some respects, business opportunity is less than ever before. In our country the opportunity of an unusually rich environment has been exploited. From nature much has been taken, and little given in return. Late in our history, our attention is directed, and even now but slowly, to the conservation of natural resources.

The hired laborer who is dissatisfied with his wages can no longer homestead fertile land, and become his own employer. The man who has but little capital finds that many lines of enterprise are closed to him. He cannot compete on anything like equal terms with those already in the field.

On the other hand, business in many ways has extended itself almost immeasurably. Its lines are multiplied, and many of its units are so enlarged as to be almost inconceivable. More than a thousand stores throughout the land are said to be under one management. The United States Steel corporation has 120,000 stockholders and 60,000 employees. Such things, unimagined a few years ago, are but little more than typical of large scale business today.

It is evident that here is untold opportunity for skilled service, management, and enterprise; yet science and business are continually working together to enlarge its limits. Business is constantly calling for better men, for men of trained hand and brain, for men of energy, knowledge, judgment, and initiative.

The Opportunity of the Self.

Of great significance is a field of opening opportunity quite different from that which we have just considered, the opportunity for the development of the self. There is, however, a close connection between this sort of opportunity and that which is offered by business. A business opportunity serves as a test of judgment, and judgment is a characteristic of the self. Not the opportunities that we have, but those that we select and use are the ones that determine success not only in business, but also in the development of personality.

Comparatively recent is the growth of the conviction that what is in the individual counts for most, that the development of character is the first consid-

eration if lasting success is to be obtained. Why this is so, is worthy of attention.

The Struggle for Existence.

The maintenance of life itself demands food, shelter, tools, and machines. Thus far the satisfaction of man's desire for material things has so occupied him that he has not given adequate attention to the development of himself. Man has shown great cleverness in the ways in which he has compelled the service of nature, but he has lacked due appreciation of the necessity of gaining the mastery of his own powers.

Ideals Resulting from the Struggle for Existence.

Ideals are the causes and the hindrances of development. It is probable that some of the most powerful of the popular ideals of the present time—physical strength, great wealth, and even education as it is often considered—owe much of their standing to the race-long struggle for existence.

Among our earliest ancestors, the exceptionally strong man, confident and courageous through belief in his strength, became a leader by reason of his unusual power, and with comparative ease obtained what he desired for the satisfaction of his urgent needs. Strength that could accomplish this, and that served, moreover, as protection to its possessor, naturally tended to become an ideal.

Accumulated wealth, first appreciated when man became provident enough to store up supplies of food for future use, was seen to be a direct means of avoiding the sufferings of famine, and of satisfying ever recurrent hunger. It is probable, too, that those

who had sufficient foresight to store up food in greater quantities than they needed for themselves were able to enter into barter in a way that was very profitable. For these reasons, accumulations of wealth naturally came to be looked upon as greatly to be desired. As it gradually became evident that wealth meant comforts, luxuries, and pleasures, otherwise unattainable, the process of its idealization was hastened.

Primitive man regarded the religious leader of his tribe with awe and admiration. This leader, the medicine man or whatever he may have been called, was probably exceptionally skilled in speech. Doubtless he surrounded himself with the mystery of strange words, and performed things that were apparently beyond the powers of ordinary man. Here, perhaps, we find the germ of a false ideal of education that has not yet entirely disappeared—of education as something of great worth in itself, as a magic power that opens the way to a life of ease and influence.

The good that has its source in physical strength, in wealth, and in education, is so great that it is not strange that these things have been idealized; neither is it a cause for wonder that the glamour that has been thrown about them sometimes conceals the significance of the ways in which they are used. The glamour of great strength conceals brutality, the glamour of wealth obscures dishonesty, and the glamour of knowledge for the sake of knowledge prevents a clear view of the need of expressive activity. It is an old saying that the best, when perverted, becomes the worst. Wrongfully regarded in their uses, or looked upon as ends in themselves,

strength, wealth, and education are potent causes of misdirected energy; rightly apprehended, their power for good is beyond our estimation.

The Opening Way.

A man's best opportunity is himself.

For a comparatively small number, sufficient or superfluous wealth has made the struggle for existence unnecessary. Of this number, some amuse themselves and degenerate; others through force of habit or the desire for the accustomed stimulus of business, continue to amass wealth with little heed to the possibilities of development to be found in other lines of effort; while the few with keener vision devote their energies to the culture of themselves, and the advancement of their fellowmen.

By far the greater part of the human race is still engaged in the struggle for existence; but to many of us is given the privilege of applying much of our power to the development of personality, to the mastery of that great part of our mental equipment which is not yet subject to our control.

Preparation.

"The secret of success in life is for the man to be ready for his opportunity when it comes."

DISRAELI.

Business as a Preparation for Business.

The idea that business is about the only necessary preparation for business is not tenable. Personal experience is not the only teacher. Efficiency may develop slowly through trial and error, but that process

often indispensable, should be avoided when possible. It is the part of wisdom to profit by the experience of others. There is no need of taking a wrong road that has been plainly so marked by those who have gone that way. It is no longer necessary, for illustration, to oversell in order to find that overselling is a hindrance to the maintenance of good will.

Business a Science.

There are certain fundamental facts and principles in business. As these facts and principles become organized, the science of business is developed. This science, this organized knowledge, can and should be learned as a part of the necessary preparation for business. It must not be thought, however, that all of business can be learned in this way. As in other professions, so in this, theory should precede practice, and should be developed and matured in practice. The successful lawyer, the skilled physician, the capable man in any profession, became such not merely through the theories that he learned, but also through putting those theories into practice.

General Preparation.

Even for those who do not know upon what line of work they are to enter, a general preparation is essential. Through directed effort, they should gain the ability (1) to think broadly and accurately, (2) to express thought in word and deed effectively, and (3) rightfully to take their place among men. Such preparation is a profitable investment in both business and life, and one to which insufficient attention has been given. The difficulties that lie ahead of us will be great or small in proportion to the ability that

we can bring to bear upon them. The degree of our success will depend upon our natural ability and the development that we obtain through preparation.

The obligation that rests upon us is four-fold: to find out the purpose of our existence, to determine what we need in order to accomplish that purpose, to obtain what we need, and to use it effectively. A great part of this is preparation.

The Choice of Occupation.

In their formative effects, few choices that we make are comparable with the choice of occupation; yet this choice, this crucial test of judgment, is often made with but little knowledge and forethought. We should not choose an occupation merely because it pleases our fancy, nor because it is held in high esteem. We should beware of the attraction of quick earnings in a kind of business that is narrow in opportunity, and should not permit ourselves to drift into a position for the reason that that is the easy thing to do. It is well understood that men make business; but there seems to be a lack of comprehension of the greater fact that *business makes men,* that it shapes and fashions them to meet its requirements. In the choice of an occupation, we should have in mind the truth that *our work cultivates in us what it demands for itself.*

It is estimated that seventy-three men out of every one hundred are in the wrong job. A man's genius is shown in his ability to select that which is suitable to him. As far as it is within our power, we should choose those occupations that will be rich for us in durable satisfactions. This may be difficult.

As civilization becomes increasingly complex, an ever finer judgment is required in order that we may properly adapt ourselves to our environment. Decision in regard to what is preferable among a few things is a matter of small difficulty compared with the selection among many things of that which is best adapted to our individual needs. Yet if we are to be on good terms with ourselves, our potential selves, ourselves of perhaps ten, twenty, fifty years from now, selection must be made so that our work will be of such a nature and quality that it will then deserve our critical approval as to the effect that it has had on us. We must be able to justify ourselves.

The Relative Importance of a Living.

The importance of a living has been over-emphasized on account of the hardships through which the human race has passed in its struggle for existence and physical well-being. A good living has its place, a fundamental place, as a means toward our development. In getting into business, however, we should have in mind that to make a good living is not enough. Under favorable conditions, the lower animals do that, and continue on the plane of their ancestry. On man devolves the further duty of making himself. Important as it is, a man's living should be subordinate to the man. While we are getting a living, our *selves* should be developed; otherwise our habits and actions will become fixed and narrow, and will not readily adjust themselves to new requirements.

The Reaction of Service.

Service to others reacts upon those who serve. "With what measure ye mete it shall be measured to you again" has no more certain field of action than that of service to our fellowmen. In that field the measure is both of kind and of quantity. All right service is honorable, but it does not follow that all kinds of service are to be held in equal esteem. With occasional unjust exceptions as to material reward, we shall find that if we render service poor in kind, or small in amount, it will be measured to us again meagrely, not alone in material returns, but also in development of character. We are primarily responsible for ourselves. To be true to the trust that is imposed upon us, we must, as far as we can, choose that kind of service that will worthily react to our upbuilding.

The Use of Judgment.

To get a right start in business, we should know in a general way (1) what it has in prospect, (2) what it requires, and (3) the relations that these things bear to our own desires, interests, and ability. To judge these things wisely is not easy, and an erroneous decision cannot be wholly rectified; yet judgment there must be, sound judgment, if we are to enter into the work that will bring with itself a worthy measure of success.

Opportunity may be the open road to development, or to the lack of development; hence our opportunities should be carefully judged. A little chance at hand may conceal a great opportunity that is more remote. The attraction of the present dollar may

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cause the loss of a suitable living, perhaps of a competency.

We should prepare ourselves to make the right kind of living; then, with a view to our higher development, we should look for opportunity that will demand growth. We cannot put our best into a job that is too small for us. Continually to do less than our best is to limit ourselves.

Applying for a Position.

Those who seek entrance into business often think too much about the amount of immediate wages or salary, and too little of the opportunity that may be opening before them. In an address to high school boys, a man of broad experience in business gave the following advice. It is not repeated here as a definite rule of action to be followed under all circumstances, but because it shows a right attitude, and contains ideas that are often capable of application. The speaker said in substance: Manage, if possible, so that when you obtain a position you will not at first need to depend upon it for your living. Choose the kind of business you wish to follow. Make a list of the employers in that line for whom you would be willing to work. Apply to the one who would be your first choice as employer. Tell him that you want to learn the business (and, the writer would add, be able to give a few reasons why). If he asks what pay your expect, say that you will leave that to him at the end of a month, or of a longer term, if that seems better. That may give you a good start in business; if not, go down your list in a similar way.

This advice, not intended to be comprehensive, may be supplemented. A suitable applicant for a position should not be too easily discouraged, should not accept a shake of the head as an absolute refusal. The prospective employer may appreciate a reasonable amount of perseverance. The applicant should not hesitate to state his fitness for the work. If he has ability and preparation, he should have faith that he can make good use of them, and this faith should be frankly expressed, not withheld through undue modesty. The world has a tendency to accept us at our own valuation.

The Privilege of Employment.

In many kinds of business the beginner is in the way. He is serving his apprenticeship. He is in process of preparation to render acceptable service, and instead of being a cause of profit to his employer, he is really a source of loss. In various establishments the average loss per employee before he becomes valuable is said to be from fifty to two hundred dollars. The beginner should bear these things in mind when he receives pay for his first work. He should recognize also that an important part of his compensation is the privilege of being where business is going on, of broadening his knowledge by experience—the privilege of employment. To make right use of this privilege is to begin progression, the second part of getting into business.

Progression.

Begin to make progress the first day. Keep at it. Find out quickly and accurately what your duties are, and how to perform them. Ask questions when

necessary, sensible questions that pertain to your part of the work. The kind of questions you ask, and the way in which you ask them should be well thought out. Among employees there are three classes of questioners: (1) Those who rarely ask. They either know their work, or find out about it independently. (2) Those who have a good knowledge of their work, but are not quite sure of themselves. Their questions are usually definite, well stated, and frequently accompanied by correct answers. (3) Those who seem to think that their superiors are there for the express purpose of making life easy for them. Their questions are numerous, indefinite, often irrelevant, useless, and even silly. Promotion to positions of great responsibility naturally comes to employees in class 1. Employees in class 2 are in line for better places than they occupy; but those in class 3 should mend their ways, or expect no better work than that in which they are engaged. The employee who asks useless questions, or questions not definitely expressed, or questions to which he himself could find answers with reasonable difficulty, is handicapping himself. By so doing he indicates that he will always require an abnormal amount of supervision, and that it will not be advisable to advance him to responsible positions.

Thoroughness.

Do your work thoroughly—all of it, even to the minute details. They may seem unimportant to you, perhaps they are, perhaps you do not know. In any case, the responsibility for the details themselves does not rest upon you, but it is your business to attend carefully to their working out. "The men who are

doing the big things today are those who were yesterday doing the little things the best they knew how."

The Assumption of Responsibility.

As rapidly as may be, assume responsibility for yourself. Supervision is expensive; it means two men on a job instead of one. As you lessen the need of supervision in your work, you increase the value of your services.

Preparation for Next Higher Work.

As soon as you know your work and do it efficiently, begin to study the work next higher. As opportunity offers, do some of that work in addition to yours. That takes energy and, perhaps, time that your employer does not require; but it is your further preparation, your extra investment in chances of promotion. *Do more than you are paid to do.* Your employer has a right to a fair profit on your work. If your services, after you have become efficient, were not worth more than you receive for them, it is probable that you would not be retained. To do merely enough to hold your job is generally a sure way to prevent promotion; to give less value in service than you receive in payment is dishonest.

Persistence.

Success that is worthy of the name usually demands persistence. A merchant whose business offers good opportunities for those who wish to become salesmen recognized this fact when he said, "Of course, a boy when he first comes to us isn't worth much. Here's a case. We pay six dollars a week. He stays a week or two, finds a place in some other business

where he can get seven dollars, goes there, stays a short time, finds another kind of job at eight dollars, and so on. That sort of fellow winds up with a fifteen dollar job. That's all he's worth. We have difficulty in getting enough boys to stay and learn the business. It's a good business, too.'' If you find that you are adapted to your work, and that your work is doing what it should for you, stick to it. Under some circumstances, a change of occupation may be advisable; but it should be a thoughtfully directed change.

Determining Factors of Progress.

Except is unusual instances, the determining factors of progress are three: (1) adequacy of preparation, not only that which precedes your work, but also that which is coincident with it; (2) choice of a business and of an employer; (3) amount of appropriate thought and energy that you put into your work. It is evident that progress rests almost wholly with you.

Business Management.

A knowledge of the fundamental principles of business management will be of use to the employee in the intelligent adjustment of himself to the regulations under which he works. It will assist him, moreover, in obtaining adequate results from those who are placed under his direction. If his ability warrants, such knowledge will put him in a fair way to become an efficient manager himself.

The Elimination of Poor Management.

As business becomes scientific, it tends to eliminate incompetent management. The manager who

does not know cannot continue to compete with those who do.

The Problem of Management.

The manager's great problem is to give the worker the right task under the right conditions. In attempts to solve the problem, there is inexcusable waste in the way in which human force is distributed. If this were merely economic in its effect, it would still be worthy of careful attention; but when we realize that to this economic waste there must be added the waste of human possibility, the failure of men to gain the pleasure and development that come to them through right adjustment to their work, it is evident that the subject demands most earnest consideration.

The Man and His Work.

Upon the manager, whatever his title may be, rests the responsibility of seeing that the man and his work are adapted to each other. Men should be selected because of their ability, present and prospective, to meet the requirements of the work which will be given them to do. In this selection, however carefully made, mistakes will occur. In such cases the responsibility of the manager is not at an end, but rather a new responsibility rests upon him. He is not justified in discharging the employee. Human material should not be heedlessly cast aside. In a large business there are many kinds of work. An employee who is faithful and energetic should be given a reasonable chance to do a task for which he is fitted, or for which he may develop fitness. When that is done, the employee often enters upon his new

work with a mental attitude that means success. The thought that a favor has been granted tends to arouse in him a determination to do his best. If he is discharged, he loses confidence in himself, probably has a grudge against the employer, and the impulse is downward instead of upward.

The proper adjustment of the man to his work is often accomplished by shifting. Failure in one line does not preclude success in another. It has been shown that workers sometimes succeed even in work of greater difficulty than that in which they have failed.

An interesting illustration of variation in adaptability to work is shown in the following: "In a pencil factory the women in one department have to grasp with one movement a dozen pencils, and they earn high wages; others never can learn it in spite of repeated trials. If those who fail in this department are transferred, for instance, to the department where the gold leaf is most carefully to be applied to the pencils before stamping, very often they show great fitness in spite of the extreme exactitude needed for this work."

Master and Man.

In the early days master and man worked side by side as friends. Later, division of labor assigned to the man his small part in production, and to the master, the manager, the work of direction. Out of this separation of men and masters and their interests grew a crude kind of management from which business has not yet entirely freed itself. The taskmaster, the driver of men, harsh, gruff, unapproach-

able, even brutal it may be, still holds some place in the business world. Today, however, there is a growing tendency on the part of efficient managers to revert somewhat to the days of a more common interest, to establish friendly relations with employees, to seek their cooperation, to encourage and reward their development, and even to give respectful consideration to the ideas that they may offer concerning their work. This is a great advance toward a full recognition of the unity of interest between master and man, of the advantages which arise from individual progress as well as from a large product. The welfare of master and of man depends upon right work done under right conditions.

The Manager.

"The secret of organization is the secret of duplicating oneself in others."

The best sort of manager picks out one employee who can do certain things as he himself would do them, picks out another employee who can do certain other things as he himself would do them, and so on. Then he gives these employees the kinds of work for which they are best adapted, and holds them responsible for results. In this way he saves for himself time and energy to be given to the higher phases of the business.

The manager should have a thorough knowledge of the business for which he is responsible. He should have definite ideas in regard to its condition, its maintenance, and its development in ways that will lead to growth and permanence. The manager should have a strong, well developed personality. He should

have the breadth of view that comes from thorough and continued preparation. This is essential if he is to be a competent judge of means and ends. Receptive, quick of mind, he should be deliberate in matters of importance, a man of decision, but not of impulse. The most successful manager has the good will of his men. He stimulates this good will through his worth as a man, his ability, his fairness, his understanding, his interest in those who are under his management. To be able to give proper attention to the broader aspects of his business, he should relieve himself of much of the burden of detail by making use of the special ability of his employees. Thus he can duplicate himself in his men, can give them of his strength and find it multiplied in them.

Questions and Topics.

1. What does Dr. King say about work?
2. What is the right work?
3. Limitation of business opportunity.
4. Extension of business opportunity.
5. What sort of men does business demand today?
6. a. The opportunity of the self.
   b. What opportunities determine success?
7. What is the first consideration if lasting success is to be attained?
8. a. Why was man's chief attention first given to nature?
   b. While satisfying his desire for material things, what has man neglected?
9. a. What are the causes of development?
   b. What popular ideals probably resulted from the struggle for existence?

10. The ideal of physical strength.
11. The ideal of great wealth.
12. A false ideal of education.
13. a. Is it strange that strength, wealth and education have been idealized? Why?
    b. How may ideals of strength, wealth and education be harmful?
14. What is one's best opportunity? Explain.
15. The three classes of those who have great wealth.
16. What privilege is given to most of us in relation to personality?
17. According to Disraeli, what is the secret of success?
18. Business as a preparation for business.
19. How does business become a science?
20. a. What kind of ability should be gained through directed effort?
    b. Upon what does the degree of our success depend?
21. What is our four-fold obligation?
22. a. What do you understand by the f[illegible] effects of an occupation?
    b. Statements in regard to the choice of an occupation.
    c. What does our work cultivate in us?
23. a. Relation between genius and selection.
    b. What sort of occupation should we choose?
    c. Is the choice of occupation an easy one? Why?
    d. The choice of a vocation in relation to our potential selves.
24. a. What is the function of a good living?

b. Relation between a living and getting into business.
c. Aside from making a living, what devolves upon man?
d. Why is it essential that we develop ourselves while getting a living?

25. a. What do you understand by the reaction of service?
b. Are all kinds of service equally estimable? Why?
c. Relation between kind and amount of service and development of character.

26. To get a right start in business, what should we know about it in a general way?
27. To what may opportunity be the open road? Why?
28. Opportunity and growth.
29. Suggestions of a business man as to applying for a position.
30. Persistence in applying for a position.
Stating fitness for work when applying for position.
privilege of employment.
32. a. What do you understand by progression in business?
b. What is the first thing toward making progress?
c. Asking questions.
33. Thoroughness as an element of progress.
34. Assumption of responsibility.
35. a. What should you do as soon as you know your work thoroughly? Why?

b. Should an employee earn more than his pay? Why?

36. Effect of frequent change of occupation.

37. Ordinarily, what are the determining factors of progress?

38. Of what use to employees is a knowledge of business management?

39. What is the tendency of scientific business in regard to poor management?

40. Waste in the distribution of human force.

41. The manager's responsibility in regard to the man and his work.

42. Shifting employees. Illustration.

43. a. Relation between master and man in early days.
    b. What changed this relation?
    c. What sort of management grew out of the separation of master and man?
    d. Present tendency as to the relation of manager to employee.
    e. Upon what does the welfare of master and man depend?

44. What is the secret of organization?

45 a. How can a manager duplicate himself in his men?
    b. Why should he do so?

46. a. What should the manager know about his business?
    b. Important characteristics of the manager.
    c. How should the manager stimulate the good will of his employees?

PART III

THE SELF-DEVELOPMENT OF PERSONALITY

The greatest achievement of man is man.

Development is unfoldment.

"Character . . . alone makes knowledge, power and wealth a help rather than a hindrance to those who possess them."

DR. NICHOLAS MURRAY BUTLER.

The Purpose of Life.

The purpose of life is the development of character that is in harmony with universal law. Our task is to learn the law of our being, and to act in harmony with it.

Every human being needs the constant purpose to become greater and better than he is; yet the satisfaction of physical needs, the enjoyment of pleasant diversions, and, perhaps, some preparation for future living of the same sort, are generally looked upon as ends that are sufficient in themselves. The man whose ideals are thus limited attaches too much importance to what he does, and too little to what he does not do. He fails to comprehend that *the supreme purpose of life is growth,* and that growth means more than mere existence and enjoyment.

Man has become a powerful master of nature; now, with definite purpose, he should achieve the further mastery of himself. This is essential, not alone

to his development as man, but to his fitness to meet the increasing demand upon him as a factor in business. Principles and methods of business must, of course, be known; but their further discovery and development, and the efficiency of their application depend upon man's knowledge and use of his powers. Man has been truly called the neglected factor in business. The statement is not sufficiently inclusive. Man is the neglected factor in almost everything that he does. To take his rightful place, he must have knowledge of himself and mastery of his powers. There is cause for thought and for action in the statement of William James that the average man is master of less than one-third of his mental equipment.

In our study of personality, we shall limit ourselves for the most part to a consideration of the development of desirable personality, of good character, and of that kind of development which is a result of conscious effort on the part of the individual—the development of the self by the self.

Development Through the Conquest of Nature.

In the natural order, primitive man directed his activities mainly toward the satisfaction of his physical wants. This necessitated some knowledge of nature, slight at first because of the abundance of nature's gifts as compared with the needs of those who required them. This knowledge, insignificant as it seems, was the beginning of man's conquest of nature. As numbers increased, man had to acquire increasing knowledge to enable him to subsist. Then came a time when some were forced to leave the

places where obtaining a living had once been almost wholly a matter of accepting what nature freely offered, and to go where they were obliged to make nature serve their purposes. Here knowledge and skill advanced; and through all the ages have continued to advance with man's increasing need and nature's response.

Retarding Forces.

The conquest of nature, broadening as it has been in its effects upon man, has nevertheless tended overmuch to direct his energies into one channel of activity. As a result there is a lack of symmetry in man's development. His ruling purpose to live and to enjoy by means of material things has narrowed the range of his effort. He has attended to his environment; he has studied it, changed it, cooperated with it, made it serve him; sometimes he has blundered with it and made himself its slave. With genius he has mastered natural forces, and has made machines that multiply his skill, his speed, his power, his accuracy. He has mechanized the major part of his activity so that much of the work that was formerly done by brain and nerve and muscle is now done by iron and steel and steam and electricity. Development, however, came through the use of brain and nerve and muscle. Material things have been so essential and so attractive that man has been absorbed in trying out his powers upon them, so absorbed that he has failed to give sufficient attention to the development of himself.

In some respects, society and the family have a retarding effect in our development. They tend to

make us too dependent. While they do for us many things that are indispensable, they often hinder our development by doing things for which we should be held individually responsible. In so doing, they lead us to expect too much of others, and to depend too little upon ourselves. Fortunately, there are some things that they cannot do for us. They cannot do our thinking, and it follows that, though they may assist through direction of effort, they cannot develop our character. That must be done by each individual for himself.

Development Through the Study of Man.

As far as we can trace it, the study of the child with a view to improvement in the methods of his intellectual training, began less than one hundred fifty years ago. During our own times, the child has been studied as never before; but the youth and the adult have not been duly considered. After the years of childhood, the youth enters upon a period of his development in which he himself becomes a most important potential factor. This is the time when he begins to think for himself, to form and to follow his own ideals. It is the first part of a period which should be one of right self-development, and which should continue throughout life. As youth and as adult, man has been and still is the neglected factor in his own development.

Man and Business.

Business is one of the most evident things in the world; but back of business is man, and back of man is law. To understand business comprehensively, we

must know much of the nature of man, and of the laws of his development.

In our day interest in the study of man in relation to business has been broadened by reason of the fact that business has entered upon a higher plane than that upon which it formerly rested. It is coming to be recognized that *the fundamental elements of character that fit one for business are identical with those which prepare him for any other worthy vocation, and for life itself.*

A Feature of the New Education.

When we come to the study of character, we are no longer satisfied with talk about the subject. We want to know what it is and how it can be developed. Tendencies indicate that a marked feature of the new education will be definite, persistent development of the traits and habits that constitute efficient character. More and more attention will be given to the purposeful culture of character because it is that kind of culture which is necessary to anything that approaches a full realization of the ideal life, a life that is in harmony with law.

Definition of Character.

Emerson in his essay on character gives the following remarkable definition. *"Character is the habit of action from the permanent vision of truth."*

Truth is the law of being. Character is measured by power to act in accord with the law of being.

Reasons for Development of Character.

Our obligation to society is doubtless greater than we usually realize. Much of our comfort, pleasure,

safety, education, and general development would be impossible were it not for society, that vast community of people of which we form a part. What society does for us places upon us the responsibility of doing for society in return. As a broad principle of justice, there is no better way to express this responsibility than in the words "service for service." To the young, society gives freely of its service, asking but little in immediate return; yet here is no wrong, because all society was once served in a similar way.

It is not sufficient, however, that we give as much as we receive. Tennyson says,

> "Yet I doubt not through the ages
> one increasing purpose runs,
> And the thoughts of men are widened
> with the process of the suns."

As a member of society, if you are to succeed, even in low degree, you must leave the world a little better than it would have been if you had not lived. As an individual, that is not enough for you. Your life, the life for which you are responsible, should be a success with which you yourself may be justly content, and it cannot be so unless your powers are well developed.

The Process of Self-Development.

The following quotations from authors of widely differing environment may well serve to introduce our discussion of the process of self-development.

> "Human improvement is from within outward." FROUDE.

"When the fight begins within himself
A man's worth something." BROWNING.

"Do what you know and perception is converted into character." EMERSON.

"Everyone is the sum total of his own work."
CERVANTES.

The first two indicate that development is from within; the third emphasizes the relation between knowledge and action; and the fourth shows the result of the process.

The essence of life is the will to act justly. Just action requires, not merely that our activities be right in kind, but that they be sufficient in amount.

We have seen that by reason of the nature of his past activities, the character of man in general is not symmetrical, and further that the power within is the neglected factor in his development. The need and obligation of the development of those powers of man as yet but little used or even known has been indicated. It has been made evident that to the many who are more or less released from the burden of the struggle for existence there is now offered the opportunity of the greater self, of the building up of a well rounded personality. The process by which this may be accomplished is worthy of our careful consideration.

Knowledge of Self.

The beginning of development is a knowledge of what needs to be developed. Become acquainted with yourself. See in yourself those traits that will aid

or hinder the fulfillment of your higher purposes. With greater knowledge there will come to you greater interest in what you are, and in what you may become. Interest transformed to desire becomes the motive of action. Study your possibilities, and let them attract you to higher accomplishment. Look upon your life with a due appreciation of its values. Analyze as best you can your abilities and inclinations. Ask yourself searchingly what you can do in order to make the most of your resources, in order best to fulfill the purpose of your existence. Man, as well as business, needs analysis and readjustment.

Thought and Expression.

Thought continually expresses itself. It effects some change in the physical being. You blush because someone laughs at you. The thought that you are awkward or ridiculous causes the blood to rush to your face. Thought causes some mental change in the one who thinks. You think out the solution of a difficult problem. Problems of that kind are no longer so hard for you because of the change in your power of understanding. Thought causes a mental change in the one who receives it. Your friend disagrees with you on some point. You express your idea convincingly, and that causes a change in his opinion. Thought often uses its force in opposition to thought with which it is not in accord. You think that you will make a note in regard to something that you wish to remember. Then it occurs to you that you will be sure to remember that point anyway. The second thought cancels the first, and the note is not made. Thought frequently works

in ways that cause it to be objectivized. You have more books than you can care for conveniently. That suggests a book shelf. You think that you will make one. You consider where it will be placed, what size it will be, and the number of brackets. You make the shelf, and thus your thought has caused itself to be objectivized.

The process of self-development is one of thought and its expression. Persistent thought along lines that chiefly affect the mental or physical being results directly or indirectly in character. Fortunately, not all our thoughts find expression to a degree that needs serious consideration; but *thoughts that are sufficiently dwelt upon become ideals, good or bad; they become dominant, and if they persist, sooner or later they find expression.*

Attention and Character.

The problem of character is a problem of attention. "One's sole responsibility," says Dr. Henry Churchill King, "is to attend, to concentrate attention on those considerations and ends that ought to prevail; then they will prevail and pass into act." Sufficient repetition of an act results in character.

Time Element in Development.

We are often told that the development of character is a gradual process. "The brain is to a certain extent like a soil in which things must germinate and ripen before they can produce results." While this is evidently true, we should not get the idea that because development is gradual it is necessarily slow. It may be slow, possibly imperceptible in its progress. Favorable conditions, however, will hasten a growth

that unfavorable conditions will retard, and conditions are largely subject to our own control.

Thought and Character.

Thought, repeated thought, dominant thought, action, repeated action, habit, character—that is the outlined process of development. It shows clearly the relation of cause and effect that exists between thought and character.

Action and Habit.

"Action," says Halleck, "is the key-note of habit and character. *If a habit in a given direction is desired, act in that direction.*" As action is preceded by attention, this idea is in harmony with a previous statement that the problem of character is a problem of attention. The quotation from Halleck covers desirable habits only. The following from an English writer, Dr. J. MacCunn, applies to all habits: *"Feelings and desires feed upon their own expression. The soul, like the body, grows to the modes in which it is exercised."* Act in a friendly way, and you cultivate in yourself a friendly disposition; express anger on slight provocation, and you cultivate the tendency to become angry, and to lose self-control. It should be well understood that repeated expression will cause habit whether that habit is desirable or not.

We shall be assisted in understanding the formation of habit by a brief consideration of the physiological phase of the subject. When a nerve first receives a certain stimulus there is said to be a discharge of nerve force through one of several possible channels, the result being dependent upon the

channel that is used. What may cause fear, for example, in one person, may arouse courage in another, and leave a third indifferent; or what might be a cause of fear to one in poor physical condition, might arouse his courage when in normal health. When a nerve receives a second stimulus of the kind received before, the nerve force tends to be discharged through the channel previously used, through the "brain path" which was begun by the first discharge. Repeated discharges through the same channel make it continually easier to follow, and tend to cause it to be used to the exclusion of other channels. In this way responses to stimuli become habitual.

Habit and Character.

Habit is the result of action many times repeated. Character is the algebraic sum of habits. For example, you may have five good habits; they are positive. You may have two equally strong bad habits; they are negative. Add them algebraically. The result is positive three, the index of your character. Habits are many, character is one. Here, however, we are chiefly concerned, not with the relation that exists between habit and character, but with the ways in which they may be developed.

The Conscious Formation of Habits.

The habits of the child are formed principally through the repetition of actions that result from the imitation of those around him, and from the direction of those who have him in their charge. In passing out of childhood, he enters upon the period when he becomes increasingly a factor in his own development. His actions are motived more and more by the

thoughts that arise within himself, and powerfully exercise their influence upon him. Henceforth through life much of his energy should be given to the formation of those habits which are essential to right character. He should make habits his friends and assistants; he should make them so reliable that they will act of themselves without direct supervision. In so doing, he will continually enlarge the field of his effort, and broaden his life.

The Process of the Conscious Formation of Habits.

The process of the conscious formation of habits may be divided into four steps: (1) Cognition of the habit to be attained. (2) Strong desire for it. (3) Determination to attain it. (4) Persistent effort until it is attained. The psychologist says, "There can be no volitional activity until there is an idea of an end." Applied to the conscious formation of habits, that means that the mind will not voluntarily work toward the attainment of a habit until it cognizes that habit as an end that should be attained. Cognition is the first step. If we cognize a habit as a good one to be attained by us, desire to attain it naturally follows. Dwelling upon the good qualities of the habit strengthens desire, and completes the second step. When desire has become sufficiently strong, it gives rise to the third step, determination to attain. Determination leads to the final step, persistence, without which the others are useless, even injurious. *To fail to do what we know we ought to do, causes a lack of confidence in ourselves, a lessening of self-respect, and a weakening of character.* These steps will be better understood if we make an application

of the process to the formation of a particular habit, for example, the habit of concentration of attention.

Application of the Process to the Development of Concentration.

Through investigation we find that concentration is the continued centering of the mind on one thing, that it is attention brought to a focus and held there. We observe the effects of the habit in others, and see that it enables them to do things quickly and accurately, to take an interest in their work that would not otherwise be possible, and to do things that could not be done without concentration. We soon cognize concentration as a good habit. We picture to ourselves what would be possible to us if we had the habit of concentration, and a desire for it naturally arises. As we dwell upon the good features of concentration, our desire for it becomes strong, and passes into determination to attain it. We make a plan for its attainment, and strengthen determination by repetition of the plan. One may say to himself, for illustration, "The next thing that I undertake to do, I will center my mind upon and finish, if possible, without allowing myself to think about anything else. If my mind wanders, I will call it back; and that I will do again and again, if necessary, until that thing is done. I will act in the same way in regard to other things that I have to do, and will persist in this course of action until my mind when set to do a certain thing will stick to that thing until it is done, or until I purposely divert my attention to something else."

The outlined action for the final step, persistent

effort, is found in the four words, DO ONE THING NOW. Every word is emphatic. *Do* signifies action; *One* means concentration; *Thing*, here, is something worth while; and *Now* means this instant, and the next when it comes, and the next, until the ONE THING IS DONE, or until the mind is purposely diverted from it. Having done this, you have concentrated your attention once; to develop the habit of concentration you must persistently follow the clear line of action expressed by the words, DO ONE THING NOW. This you must do until the habit of concentration is fixed, until it has become a permanent part of your character.

The development of concentration, and of any habit, may be hastened by the repetition of good thoughts concerning it. The purpose of such repetition is to make right thoughts about the habit prevail in the mind so that they will pass into act.

The Principle of Repetition.

One who has not considered the process of the conscious formation of habits, may at first regard the repetition of ideas as mechanical, perhaps absurd. It rests, however, on the recognized psychological principles that *repetition of a thought tends to make it become dominant, and that a dominant thought expresses itself.*

The use of repetition is not so novel as may at first appear. Who has not heard of the mysterious way in which someone awakened himself at an unusual hour in the morning? The process was like this. When he retired, he said to himself over and over, "I must wake up at three o'clock, I must wake

up at three o'clock." The repeated thought became dominant, expressed itself, and, much to his surprise, he awoke at three.

Not rare also is the experience of those who, having worked hard in an apparently useless attempt to solve some difficult problem, have found after a night's rest that it had "solved itself." Here again the data, many times repeated, impressed their relations upon the mind, and the thought concerning them expressed itself in logical form.

Is it not strange that we have made so little effort to discover the cause of such interesting results in order to make use of that cause in other and more important ways? We are only beginning to realize the possibilities that are open to us through the use of repetition of ideas.

Mental Attitude.

As in other worth-while undertakings so in the conscious formation of habits we should give heed to our mental attitude. *Some of the greatest obstacles that we have to overcome are those that we place in our own way.* We should cultivate belief in our ability to do things, and have in mind the creative power of strong desire, and of continued purpose and effort. Assured of great possibilities in our development, and of success in proportion to properly directed effort, *we should earnestly set ourselves to the task of self-realization,* the task of fulfilling our possibilities.

There are times when our thoughts are especially strong in incentive to noble effort, when they point out what should be done, and urge accomplishment. Usually of brief duration, such thoughts are often

permitted to pass without sufficient attention. They should be retained and cherished; and thus will the power of our best moments manifest itself permanently in our lives.

The conscious formation of a habit is largely dependent upon the repetition of ideas, and there is a chance that repetition may become merely mechanical. Against this we must be on our guard. For the process to be duly effective, we must think while using the words whose purpose it is to convey thought, must continually put meaning into words that are repeatedly used. If we do this, we shall find that we are doing much toward changing thought into character.

We must not, however, look upon self-realization as merely a matter of thinking. We cannot think ourselves into well rounded personality. Action is the necessary connection between thought and character. Our thoughts must be reinforced by action, vivified and strengthened by continued expression. *The ultimate test of a man is not what he thinks, but what he does.*

Too Many Ideas.

Most of us have too many ideas. Through lack of judgment we want too many things, and waste our energies on non-essentials. *Useless activity is as wasteful as indolence.* Our efforts should be centered on the satisfaction of those needs that are essential to our development. We should dwell with judgment upon what we wish to have, to do, and to be, and upon the means of obtaining, of using, and of becoming.

Much has been written about concentration, usually with the purpose of showing the value of centering the mind upon particular tasks of comparatively limited duration. Should we not make the term more inclusive, especially realizing that concentrated effort may cover a long period? If we succeed as we should in the formation of great habits, we must have concentration of desire, of purpose, and of effort, not temporarily, but as long as may be necessary to make those habits automatic. This side of completeness, there should be no stopping point in our development; and we can as yet recognize no limit to the development of personality.

The Motive Principle.

The chief thing that brings about great accomplishment is persistent, concentrated desire. The reason for this is that such a desire serves as a motive for effort until that which is desired is attained.

Becoming a Law to Ourselves.

To be content with a habit that is but half formed is a fault. To do things right occasionally is good, but to do them right habitually is the end for which to strive. It is a long step from conformance to law to becoming a law to ourselves. As long as it requires conscious effort on our part to do what we know we should do, we may be sure that our character along that line is not yet complete. If one in passing a fruit stand has even a slight desire to possess himself of some of the fruit without paying for it, his honesty is not yet completely established. A habit that is fully formed may be said to supervise itself.

Such a habit leaves one free to use his conscious effort in lines of work that have not become habitual. Thus it serves in the formation of other habits, and the further development of the self.

In the conscious formation of habits it is necessary to decide somewhat definitely what habits are fundamental. This is a matter of difficulty, and one upon which we need not expect unanimity of opinion. In a way, it is something that the individual should decide for himself. This decision, however, may be assisted by a study of certain habits that will be generally acknowledged as essential to a well developed character.

The Greatest Habit—Right Thinking.

"Man is a thinking being whether he will or no; all he can do is to turn his thoughts the right way."

SIR WILLIAM TEMPLE.

"The world has long been interested in right and wrong actions. We are at last discovering that all our right and wrong actions go back for their sources to right and wrong thinking."

DR. J. HERMAN RANDALL.

The greatest of all habits is the habit of right thinking. Without it no great habit is possible. It is the source of great habits; it precedes them all, and maintains them. Because it is a part of all great habits it cannot be treated as one of a group. In a sense, it stands alone, and yet it includes all great habits, and determines their resultant, good character, desirable personality.

A Standard of Thinking.

The term "right thinking" cannot be satisfactorily defined. We may say that it is thinking in harmony with universal law; but then it is evident that our definition needs defining. What is universal law? It is the law that defines all things, and to us is incapable of definition. As a working basis, however, we may assume that right thinking for us as individuals is that kind of thinking which is in harmony with our highest ideals; it is thinking the best thoughts of which we are capable. Such a standard is variable, approaching perfection as we develop our powers of thinking as we ought to think. *There is no way of arriving at perfection except by a progressive doing of our best;* and that is dependent upon our thinking of what is best according to our highest standard.

The Prophecy of Thought.

Thought is the great source of habit; and the formation of a habit is a step in the development of character. For these reasons *our thought is prophetic; it is our character in the making.* Through our mental faculties we have untold power over ourselves, and it is for us to determine in what ways that power shall be used.

Truth and Freedom.

Absolute right thinking results in harmonious action and complete freedom. We have but a meagre understanding of the great thought, "And ye shall know the truth, and the truth shall make you free." If we had complete knowledge, we should be perfectly free because we should attempt nothing that is not in harmony with truth. With full knowledge of the

result of wrong-doing, we should do no wrong. Complete knowledge is, of course, impossible to us; but our interest lies in acting according to the best knowledge that we have.

Thought Culture.

With even a slight understanding of the relation of thought to truth, to action, and to character, we can comprehend something of the importance of thought selection and thought culture.

"Mature your minds with great thoughts." Think the great thoughts of others after them, analyze such thoughts, reflect upon their application, and utilize them. Do the same in regard to your own best thoughts. Dwelling upon great thoughts is the major part of proper thought culture, a process without which suitable development is impossible. Good thoughts are vibrant with life. We should hear them, read them, think them; we should express them in word and deed, and thus make them a part of ourselves.

Thought Control.

Our thoughts regulate our lives. Whether we are our own best friends or worst enemies is a matter of choice with us. Our thinking, which is largely subject to our control, aids or injures, advances or retards our growth. *Every right thought is constructive, and is a part of the process of the development of the true self; every wrong thought is destructive, and is a part of the process of degeneration.* Our growth depends upon our acceptance of what to us is new truth, or upon our reaction in a new way to the truth

that we already know. We should, therefore, to the best of our ability, direct our thought in lines of truth.

Emerson says, "Real action is in silent moments." We have seen that ideas repeatedly dwelt upon tend to become ideals, good or bad. By them our character is molded. It is evident that our thinking should be controlled, and that we should form the habit of being justly critical of all our thoughts, not only of those that we consciously express but also of those that gain our attention in silent moments.

A Positive Attitude.

Progress is positive. Hence, we should not allow our thoughts to rest needlessly upon the negative side of things. In our present stage of development, some knowledge of the negative is necessary to an adequate understanding of the positive. We learn by contrast. The negative as a background makes the positive stand out in relief. The good seems better when contrasted with the bad. We should have sufficient knowledge of the bad to enable us to recognize and avoid it. Further knowledge contains an element of danger for those who are not thoroughly grounded in the good. As far as possible, our thought should be positive. We should think goodness, strength, power, and deserved success. Without egotism, we should cultivate a firm belief in our capability, enlarge the mental measure of ourselves, and continually grow toward it. We should cultivate a purposeful, steadfast life, filled with the thought of the worth and joy of living. We should cultivate an attitude of faith, of zeal, and of good will; and above all of

open-mindedness to truth, and of readiness to accept its direction.

Other Great Habits.

It is beyond the scope of our subject to give consideration to all the habits that are recognized as good. Moreover, such consideration is not necessary. Our present purpose will be best served by dwelling upon the habits that are fundamental, those that we may properly describe as great habits, and upon which depend the habits that are relatively of less importance.

Right thinking, the greatest habit, has been discussed. Attention is now directed to a group of habits, each of which is indispensable to a high degree of development.

1. Integrity.
2. Receptivity.
3. Concentration.
4. Creative Imagination.
5. Thoroughness.
6. Poise.
7. Service.

These will be discussed in the order given. On account of their overlapping, it is impossible to arrange these habits in a strictly logical sequence. However, it will be seen that integrity, receptivity, and concentration are primary requisites in the development of character; that creative imagination is essential to the making of a plan, and that thoroughness is necessary to the completion of a plan. Poise and service, to a marked degree, are the resultants of the habits previously named.

Integrity.

Integrity means wholeness, entirety; physical, mental, and moral soundness. For the human being it is only approximately attainable. It includes the great attributes of honesty, truthfulness, faithfulness, reliability, and just loyalty. There is no greatness without integrity.

The desirability of physical, mental, and moral soundness as aids to the development of character is self-evident.

Receptivity.

Receptivity is open-mindedness. As a desirable habit, it is open-mindedness controlled by right thinking. It is a mental attitude that is receptive to vital truth whatever may be the source. It is cultivated by attention, interest, desire, judgment, purpose, and use. The order is significant. Attention changes into interest; interest becomes desire; desire, if sanctioned by judgment, develops into purpose; and the habit itself is made strong through use. *Controlled receptivity is the open way for truth, and upon it depends the advancement of the individual, and of the race.*

A human being is never wholly satisfied. He always wants something more or different. This desire for that which he does not have predicates a fundamental desire for completeness, and completeness is possible through receptivity only.

Receptivity is hindered (1) by prejudice, which is well characterized as "opinion without judgment;" (2) by obstinacy, perhaps a racial instinct having its origin in the early necessity of maintaining one's self against opposition; (3) by a general attitude of

incredulity, due, it may be, to the instinct to distrust that with which we are unfamiliar, and to be alert against being taken unaware; (4) by false pride in one's own opinion; (5) by mental inertia, laziness of mind, one of the most obstructive bars to progress; and (6) by over-conservatism, the tendency to perpetuate the existent without due regard to its fitness.

In his essay on "Education for Efficiency," Dr. Eliot has a thought that applies to receptivity. He says, "Another leading object in education for efficiency is the cultivation of the critical discernment of beauty and excellence in things and in words and thoughts, in nature and in human nature." That is the culture of receptivity of beauty and excellence. In the same connection he says further, "The faculty for discerning quickly and surely excellence and virtues in persons, peoples, nature, and art, is immeasurably more valuable and useful than the faculty for seeing weaknesses and sins." Accepting this truth, we should understand, however, that the faculty for seeing that which is defective may be indirectly constructive. A fault must be known as such before it can be remedied. It is often necessary for destruction to precede construction.

Receptivity must be rightfully used. Without control, it may be the entrance for the unimportant, the false, the injurious, and thus may become an obstruction to the development of right character.

Concentration.

"The problem of character becomes ultimately a problem of fixing attention."

DR. HENRY CHURCHILL KING.

"This is the key to the whole problem of mental development—that we shall learn how to live continually in the presence of the thoughts or faculties which we earnestly desire to see developed in ourselves." DR. J. HERMAN RANDALL.

When sufficiently developed, the faculty of concentration becomes largely involuntary, so that when the mind is set to do a particular task, it tends to finish that task without further voluntary direction. *In automatism lies the supreme value of habit.* This is what makes the habit of concentration so efficient in accomplishment, and so indispensable in the development of character. Without concentration, efficient use of the intellect is impossible.

Creative Imagination.

"All things real are so by so much of virtue as they contain." EMERSON.

Limitation of Terms.

Reproductive imagination is usually considered a function of memory; therefore images recalled by memory will not be dealt with in this discussion. All imagination is image-forming; that which forms images is to a certain extent, creative; therefore, in a broad sense, all imagination is creative. Relative to its permanent results, however, imagination is either creative or non-creative. Acting in the realm of the real, imagination is creative; acting outside of that realm, it is non-creative in that it creates nothing that will endure, nothing that is not ephemeral. *The real cannot come from the unreal.* From another viewpoint, non-creative imagination is even destruc-

tive because it uses energy that should be constructively employed. A man of good ability may waste the energy of a lifetime in the attempt to invent a perpetual motion machine. Edison, on the other hand, has used his imagination in the creative way. As a means of producing right results, creative imagination may be defined as the image-making activity of the mind working in harmony with universal law.

Realms of Imagination.

The realms of imagination are the real and the unreal. The real includes everything that has the power of existing permanently; the unreal is merely the non-existent.

REAL	a Undefined b	UNREAL
The Permanent		The Non-existent

Through lack of sufficient ability to discriminate, it is not possible for us distinctly to separate the realms of imagination. We cannot draw a definite line between them. For us there is a borderland of uncertainty. It would seem that images that are harmless in themselves may be formed in the realm of the unreal without injurious effect, even, it may be, with an increase of the power of imagination. We may, perhaps with some benefit, imagine a ladder extending to the moon, or invisible, intangible wires and poles, or witches riding through the air on broomsticks. Such fancies would be almost negligible were it not for the fact that they may so occupy the imagi-

nation as seriously to interfere with its real work. *To dwell upon the unreal is to give energy to an attempt at impossible creation, and thus to divert from its proper course the creative power of imagination.* This may result in the dreamer content with his thoughts, or the visionary dwelling upon impossible things, or imagining possible and desirable things without making suitable effort to attain them. Whatever the result, there will be waste or positive misuse of imaginative power.

Not too narrowly, however, should we limit the range of the imagination. The seemingly impossible of even a few years ago is evident reality today. Aviation and wireless telephony were always real and potentially evident. The evidence of their reality was made possible through the work of what is sometimes called a fanciful imagination. Such imagination, however, was consciously or unconsciously working in the realm of the real.

The Action of Creative Imagination.

The chief function of imagination is causation. Its work is to make plans that can be realized. The proper action of creative imagination is twofold. (1) It forms an ideal pattern or prototype of the good that we desire; (2) dwelling upon this prototype, it sets in operation forces that tend toward what we term realization. We cannot originate power any more than we can create matter, but we can use the power of imagination to assist us in attaining the good that we desire. Upon its use depends primarily the fulfillment of our possibilities. Image-forming is essential to cognition; and without cognition of an

end there is no volitional activity that tends to reach that end.

The practical application of these truths is shown in the following illustration. It matters not whether you wish to acquire the habit of poise, to outline your life, to build a house according to your ideas of what a house should be, or, eventually, to make a trip to Europe—in each instance the process by which the end may be attained is the same. You hear and read about trips to Europe, for example, until the idea comes to you that you would like to go there yourself. The image of the trip is at first indefinite, and you consider the idea impracticable. It recurs to you, however, and you think that such a thing may be possible. You begin to imagine where you would go, and what you would do, and how enjoyable such a trip would be. Through such image-forming the idea assumes definiteness until the end is cognized, and you purposefully set your forces in operation toward its attainment. You do things that otherwise you would not do. Perhaps you give extra care to your business so that you may be able to make the proposed journey, perhaps you curb your extravagance, and even deny yourself the satisfaction of certain needs in order to further the interests of this purpose that has become dominant. Consciously and unconsciously you make things bend to this purpose; and, eventually, unless your purpose is opposed by some stronger force, you make the trip to Europe.

Control of Imagination.

Imagination, like receptivity, should be wisely controlled. Thinking, reading, study, work, recreation—

everything into which the imagination enters—should be habitually subjected to careful discrimination. *Imagination tends to create according to its own patterns; it should be allowed to dwell upon only those things that our reason says should become a part of our selves or of our environment.* We must, however, bear in mind that the real includes much more than we ordinarily think, and that the way of expressing truth may be highly fanciful. If the poet puts in words what the flower, or the brook, or the forest says to him, he may thus reveal some vital truth. The myth and the fairy tale may embody truth. Even the magic wand that stops the flow of the river may be significant.

The Misuse of Imagination.

There is great waste of energy in useless and injurious imagination. To dwell upon the impossible is to take away from thought nearly all of its creative power, and habitually to allow the imagination to act upon too many things is to scatter its force so as to render it comparatively ineffective. Another serious misuse of the imagination is thinking too much about that which is harmful. If you use imagination in this way, you tend to bring the harmful into realization. All misuse of the imagination interferes with the natural course of development.

The Individual Test of Imagination.

We are beginning to realize the importance of the proper use of imagination. Fortunately it is within our power to determine this use with a fair degree of accuracy. The individual test, easy of application, and intensely practical, is this: Does this about

which I am thinking tend sufficiently toward the betterment of myself or my environment? True development demands an affirmative answer.

Thoroughness.

"We live no more of life than we live well."

THOMAS CARLYLE.

An old form of the word "thoroughness" is "throughness," signifying the quality of going through to the end or conclusion. Thoroughness means more than that. It means going through in a way that is suited to the end. A pioneer comes to a river. If he wishes to cross but once, he may make a raft of logs and basswood bark; if he takes up land along the river, and finds it necessary to cross again and again, he will probably construct a rude sort of boat. Thus his thoroughness will vary in degree according to the end to be attained; it must, however, be sufficient to the end. As related to human activity, thoroughness includes persistence with the added idea of sufficiency in the manner of accomplishment. *The result for which we work is at the end of effort,* and it is from lack of persistence that we sometimes fail when success is but a hand-breadth away.

Thoroughness is often prevented by an attempt to do too many things, or by too great eagerness to attain ends quickly. The result is superficiality, through which we miss the greatest good in much that we undertake. We want ends without sufficient means, and our overhaste to attain them often results in not reaching them at all. We should recall that thoroughness means going through in a way that is sufficient to the end desired.

Poise.

"It is not enough to have great qualities, we should have the management of them." PLATO.

Poise is that balance of the powers which enables them suitably to respond to whatever demands are made upon them. It is readiness to act outwardly, or to prevent such action, as occasion requires. As a habit, it is self-control that has become usual, in its highest degree even automatic. Suggestive of power, poise adds effectiveness to the expression of power. Without poise, power may be doubly harmful, injuring him who uses it as well as him against whom it is employed. A man of uncontrolled temper may injure another, and at the same time weaken his own character.

Poise is an expression of accurate judgment as to what is best to do under the circumstances. It is favored by general physical and mental well-being and, except in those cases where immediate action is imperative, by deliberation; it is opposed by physical and mental unsoundness and by harmful impulse. A common hindrance to the cultivation of poise is the tendency to quick resentment and defense. Although sometimes justifiable and indicative of a proper balance of the powers, that tendency usually comes from a sense of inferiority due to wounded vanity, from a feeling that we must make an immediate show of brave qualities in order to maintain the esteem of our fellows. We should keep in mind that poise is one of the prerequisites of desirable esteem.

Poise, in its higher form, is difficult for most of us to attain, but it may be consciously acquired, and we

should not allow ourselves to be discouraged even by repeated failure. Properly directed and continued effort will lead to the desired end, or, at least, toward that end; and whatever we may gain of poise is so much of efficiency added to our character. The habit of poise is not gained through a moment's self-control. He who is master of himself became such through a thousand victories.

Service.

"Whosoever would be chief among you, let him be your servant." SCRIPTURE.

"Not only the reality of our present thinking—but our growth, intellectual and moral, demands expressive activity." DR. HENRY CHURCHILL KING.

"To thine own self be true,
And it must follow as the night the day,
Thou canst not then be false to any man."
SHAKESPEARE.

The Duality of Service.

A careful reading of the quotations will show that they all express two phases of service, usefulness to the self and to others. Due service to oneself prepares him to serve others, and due service to others reacts in the upbuilding of the self.

The complexity of service is apt to cause wrong ideas concerning it. When we think of self-service, for illustration, the idea of selfishness naturally arises; yet the two ideas are opposed to each other. *The self cannot be selfishly well served.* While this thought should be kept in mind, we should not overlook the fact that to devote too much energy to the service of

others prevents that service of the self upon which due service to others depends.

The ultimate purpose of the development of the self is to enable it to act in harmony with law. Looking toward its completeness, the self demands service through both receiving and giving. Our primary obligation is to develop our selves, our personalities in the best significance of that word. The largest self comes through self-service which of necessity includes the service which should be rendered to others. We must receive before we can give, but in all abstract things, we have not fully received until we have given.

Habitual right thinking results in the formation of great habits, and these continually find expression in service, in usefulness not alone to those who receive, but to those who give. Expression deepens impression. The recitation, for example, of something that you have learned deepens the impression made at the time of learning. Expression is itself a part of the learning process. A thought, good or bad, becomes stronger if you share it with another. Due service of hand or eye or brain develops skill and power in him who serves, and service fitly rendered is a gift that increases the abundance of him who receives, and of him who gives.

Questions and Topics.

1. What is man's greatest achievement?
2. What is development?
3. The relation of character to knowledge, power, and wealth.
4. What is the purpose of life?

5. a. What constant purpose does every human being need?
   b. What ends do most people consider sufficient?
   c. What do such people fail to comprehend?
6. a. What conquest should man now definitely undertake?
   b. Man as a neglected factor.
   c. What does William James say about man and his mental equipment?
7. a. Toward what did primitive man mainly direct his activities?
   b. Relation between increased population and the conquest of nature.
8. a. What is the tendency of the conquest of nature in relation to the direction of human energy?
   b. What do you understand by mechanizing activity? How does it affect man's development?
9. a. In what way do society and the family retard development?
   b. What can they not do for us?
10. a. Systematic child study.
    b. What is said about the study of the youth and the adult?
    c. Why should the youth be studied especially?
11. Man, business, law.
12. a. Why has interest in preparation for business been broadened in recent years?
    b. What truth in regard to preparation must soon be recognized?
13. a. What do we want to know about character?

b. What will probably be a marked feature of the new education?

14. Emerson's definition of character.
15. By what is one's character measured?
16. Social obligation for the development of character.
17. a. Why is it not enough to give as much as we receive?
    b. What sort of success should you make of your life?
    c. Why should you develop yourself?
18. According to Froude, whence comes human improvement?
19. Explain the quotation from Browning.
20. Emerson's statement of the process of development.
21. Explain the quotation from Cervantes.
22. a. What is the essence of life?
    b. What does just action require?
23. a. What is the beginning of development?
    b. What should we see in ourselves?
    c. What should come as a result of a greater knowledge of self?
    d. What is the motive of action?
    e. To what should our possibilities attract us?
    f. What are the further steps in gaining knowledge of self?
24. a. Thought effecting physical change.
    b. Thought effecting mental change.
    c. Thought opposing thought.
    d. Thought objectivizing itself.
25. a. What kind of a process is self-development?
    b. What thoughts result in character?

c. What is a dominant thought? What thoughts become dominant?

26. Relation between attention and character.

27. Time element in development.

28. Beginning with thought, what is the outlined process of development?

29. a. What does Halleck say about action and habit?

b. What does Dr. MacCunn say about action and habit?

30. The physiological side of habit formation.

31. a. Of what is habit the result?

b. How may character be said to be the algebraic sum of habits?

32. a. How are the habits of the child largely formed?

b. Why is the period immediately following childhood a very important one?

c. The duty of youth and adult in habit formation.

33. a. Name the four steps in the process of conscious habit formation.

b. Why is cognition the first step in conscious habit formation?

c. Explain the second step.

d. What gives rise to determination?

e. Why is the final step the most important?

f. Why is it dangerous not to do the things that we know we ought to do?

34. a. In developing concentration, what may be found through investigation?

b. How does imagination help?

c. How may we strengthen determination? Illustration.

35. a. What four words outline the final step?
b. Their significance in this connection.
c. What is accomplished by following the outline once?
d. What more does the development of concentration require?

36. What is the purpose of repeating to oneself right thoughts concerning concentration?

37. Upon what two psychological principles does the process of habit formation rest? Illustrations.

38. a. How does a wrong mental attitude hinder our progress?
b. What should be our attitude in regard to our own ability?

39. Dwelling upon our best thoughts.

40. How should we guard against becoming mechanical in the repetition of ideas?

41. a. What is the necessary connection between thought and character?
b. What is the ultimate test of a man?

42. a. What is the result of giving attention to too many things?
b. Useless activity.
c. Upon what should our efforts be centered? Explain.

43. a. In the formation of a great habit how long are desire, purpose, and effort necessary?
b. What is the right stopping point in development? Where is it?

44. What is the chief thing that brings about great accomplishment? Why?

45. a. Half-formed habits.
    b. How may we know when a habit is fully established?
    c. What does a fully formed habit leave us free to do?
46. What does Sir William Temple say about thinking?
47. According to Dr. Randall, what is the source of right and wrong action?
48. What is the greatest habit? Why?
49. a. The individual standard of thinking.
    b. What is the only way in which we may reach perfection?
50. Explain how our thought is prophetic.
51. a. Absolute right thinking and freedom.
    b. Perfect knowledge and wrong-doing.
52. a. Quotation that states the way in which to mature the mind.
    b. What is the major part of the process of thought direction and thought culture?
    c. How can we make good thoughts a part of ourselves?
53. a. Comparison of the results of right and wrong thinking.
    b. Relation between truth and growth.
54. a. What does Emerson say about real action?
    b. Why should we be critical of all our thoughts?
55. a. Why should we not allow our thoughts to dwell needlessly on the negative side of things? degenerate
    b. To what extent is a knowledge of the negative useful?

c. Explain what is meant by positive thinking.
d. How should we think concerning our own capability?
e. What sort of life should we cultivate?
f. What mental attitudes should we cultivate?

56. a. What are the seven great habits?
b. Why is it not possible to arrange the seven great habits in logical sequence?
c. Explain the given arrangement.

57. a. What is integrity?
b. What other attributes does integrity include?

58. a. As a desirable habit, what is receptivity?
b. By what six things is receptivity cultivated?
c. Why is receptivity especially important?

59. a. Is a human being ever wholly satisfied?
b. What does that indicate?
c. How is completeness possible?

60. By what six things is receptivity hindered?

61. a. Thoughts of Dr. Eliot that apply to receptivity.
b. Constructive criticism.

62. Why must receptivity be properly controlled?

63. Dr. King on the "problem of character."

64. Dr. Randall on the "key to the problem of mental development."

65. a. Wherein lies the supreme value of habit?
b. Concentration and the use of the intellect.

66. Quotation from Emerson concerning reality.

67. a. Why is all imagination, broadly speaking, creative?
b. Explain creative and non-creative imagination.

c. How may non-creative imagination be destructive?
d. Definition of creative imagination as the term is here limited.

68. The realms of imagination.

69. a. Why can we not draw a definite line between the realms of imagination?
b. Images in the realm of the unreal.
c. The result of dwelling upon the unreal.
d. What is the difference between a visionary and a man with a vision?

70. Limitation of the range of the imagination.

71. a. The chief function of imagination. Explain.
b. The proper action of creative imagination.
c. What use can we make of the power of imagination?
d. What is dependent upon the proper use of creative imagination? Why?

72. Illustration of the constructive use of imagination.

73. a. In relation to what activities should imagination be controlled?
b. Upon what kind of things should the imagination be allowed to dwell? Why?
c. Fanciful expression of truth.

74. The misuse of imagination.

75. What is the individual test of imagination?

76. Quotation from Thomas Carlyle on thoroughness.

77. a. Significance of an old form of the word "thoroughness."
b. Definition of thoroughness. Illustration.
c. Can one be persistent and not thorough?

d. Why do we sometimes fail when success is very near?

78. a. How is thoroughness often prevented?
    b. Results of the lack of thoroughness.
79. Quotation from Plato that applies to poise.
80. a. Definition of poise.
    b. Poise and self-control.
    c. Poise and power.
    d. Power without poise. Illustration.
81. a. Poise and judgment.
    b. By what is poise favored?
    c. Hindrances to the cultivation of poise.
82. The acquirement of poise.
83. Give the three quotations that express the duality of service.
84 What do you understand by the duality of service?
85. a. Due service to self and selfishness.
    b. Result of dwelling too much upon the thought of service to others.
86. a. Ultimate purpose of the development of the self.
    b. Looking toward its completeness, what service does the self demand?
    c. What is our primary obligation?
    d. The largest self and service.
87. Expression and impression. Illustration.

PART IV

BUYING

The Initial Art.

Buying has been called the initial art. Good buying is the beginning of good merchandising, and poor buying is a handicap that interferes more or less seriously with successful selling.

Range of Application of Principles.

The principles of buying apply not only to the purchase of goods for resale or for use, but also to the purchase of services. The employer needs to know men as thoroughly as the buyer for the store should know goods. To hire anyone who comes along and discharge him if he fails, is a wasteful method. Business should not be a school for the training of those who are not adaptable to the work upon which they are entering.

Unity of Interest of Buyer and Seller.

Buying and selling have long been regarded as activities that are antagonistic to each other; in reality, they are harmonious parts of the same unit, a business transaction. The ultimate unity of interest of buyer and seller precludes antagonism. Of this unity the business world is rapidly becoming conscious. The right sort of buyer tries to obtain a fair offer; the right kind of seller tries to get a fair price, and in fair price their unity of interest ex-

presses itself. To be successful the buyer must receive a fair return for what he gives in exchange, and the seller must sell at a fair price if he is to make his business permanent.

There is a marked contrast in the activities of buyer and seller. The buyer who is worthy of the name investigates, discriminates, and decides; the seller instructs, convinces, and, if need be, persuades. So different are these activities that they seem to be antagonistic, and it is clearly evident that buyer and seller do serve as checks upon one another. In the broader view, however, the apparent difference of interests disappears, and buyer and seller are seen to be doing what they should do. The buyer buys what he should buy, the seller sells what he should sell, the interests of both are maintained, and the way is left open for advantageous continuance of trade. Right trade is cooperative, and results in benefit to both parties to the exchange; wrong trade, the outcome of incompetent buying or injudicious selling, is detrimental to both buyer and seller.

Relation between Buying and Selling.

The fundamental relation between buying and selling is expressed in the maxim, "Well bought is half sold." This maxim we naturally apply to the business of the dealer in goods. We may apply it equally well, however, to the business of the manufacturer. He buys machinery, power, materials, labor, superintendence—everything that enters into the cost of production—and good buying of these things furnishes the basis for the successful selling of his product.

Buyers.

There are three classes of buyers: those who buy for their own use, those who buy with intent to sell, and those who are employed to buy for use or sale by others. The characteristics of all good buyers are much the same. Here we are especially interested in buying for resale; but a great part of what is said applies as well to buying under other conditions.

The buyer who purchases goods to be resold in the same form should be an experienced salesman. He should know the wants of the trade for which he buys; the habits, tastes, and opinions of his customers; the features of goods that will appeal to them; and the approximate amount of the various kinds of goods that they will probably buy within a definite time. There is no way in which these things can be learned so thoroughly by the prospective buyer as in the direct selling of goods to his customers. In the wider market he is to be their representative, and in order to represent them in a satisfactory way, he must know their wants and preferences.

The buyer of goods at wholesale in a large trade center has need of nearly all the traits that are essential to good buying, and to him will be given our principal consideration.

The buyer investigates, discriminates, and decides. If these activities are to be efficient, he must have certain well developed characteristics. To open the way to his work, he should be of good appearance, and should be able fitly to take his place among those with whom he deals. In dress, he should avoid flashy and extreme styles, as these may suggest a

lack in taste or judgment. In a large trade center, he should be inconspicuous among those who are well dressed. Courteous in manner, the buyer should be somewhat reserved, receptive rather than aggressive, not too readily approachable, yet not repellent of well-meant advances—a man who interests and attracts without apparent effort to do so.

If the buyer is an employee, he is in a position of unusual trust. Time and money are placed in his care to be used in circumstances under which he is comparatively free from restraint and supervision. To meet that trust he must be rigidly exacting with himself. He must use his employer's time and money with as great care as he would if they were his own, perhaps with even greater care.

Amount of Stock to Buy.

In all purchases at wholesale there should be as little guesswork as possible in regard to the quantities of goods that should be bought to meet the demand for a certain period. Therefore, before purchasing, the buyer should have a definite knowledge of the quantities of goods on hand. This may be obtained from a stock book, a perpetual inventory, or a card system. In a large business, the buyer determines the maximum and minimum quantities of stock to be carried, and requires reports from salesmen or heads of departments when those quantities are nearly reached. He also requires reports of calls for goods not on hand. Thus he is able to keep in close touch with the needs of his stock.

The buyer should be conservative in the amount of his orders. "Enough is too much." Stock that

has to be moved at cost or below is usually a reflection on the judgment of the buyer, and, except for the advertising that may be gotten out of it, an unprofitable investment for the owners of the business. Reorders are generally a sufficient means of meeting unexpected demands. It is expensive to carry goods over from one season to another. There is the cost of moving, of storing, and of again placing the goods on sale; there is loss through the deterioration of certain kinds of goods, through insurance, and through overlong investment without returns; above all, there is the loss through change in style. Out-of-style goods frequently have to be sold at cost or less. For these reasons the buyer must guard against overstocking. To assist him in this, to furnish him with as good a basis as possible on which to estimate future needs of stock, many large concerns keep records of the sales of their various kinds of goods during certain periods. As a further prevention against overstocking, the buyer should have a good understanding of the market, not alone as to its present conditions, but also as to probable changes.

The Work of the Buyer.

With a competent knowledge of what is required, the buyer is ready to enter upon his work. By means of systematic and persistent investigation, he should obtain a comparative knowledge of goods that are offered, and of their prices. He should discriminate wisely. To do this, he must know goods thoroughly as to their quality and style, and their fitness for his trade. Moreover, the buyer should be conversant with the business methods and practices that relate

to his lines of goods. Ready knowledge of these things makes a good impression on the seller, and may prepare the way for favors in terms or information.

While the buyer should have a receptive attitude toward new ideas and advice and information, he should constantly keep in mind the fact that he is responsible not to the seller, but to himself or to his employer. When sufficient data are before him, he should take due time for deliberation, and under no circumstances should he allow himself to be urged into a hasty decision, or one that does not satisfy his best judgment.

Dealing with Traveling Salesmen.

If the buyer is to deal with traveling salesmen, reliance must be placed on previously acquired knowledge of goods and prices, of the firms represented, and, ordinarily, of the salesmen themselves. His opportunities compared with those of the one who goes to a large trade center, are somewhat limited. This disadvantage, however, is partially offset by the fact that the wholesaler has to take the initiative. The one who acts is usually at some disadvantage as compared with the one who is requested to act. Whether the buyer goes or stays, if he is to buy many lines of goods, his ability should be broad enough to enable him to meet the special representatives of every line on common ground.

Relation of Buyer to Those Who are to Sell the Goods.

The ultimate success of the buyer depends to a great extent upon the salesmen who are to handle the goods. He should keep in close touch with them, be-

cause they are in closer touch with customers than it is possible for him to be. He should be receptive to their ideas in relation to goods and their selling points, should study the men and their methods, and should make it a part of his business to do what he can to effect improvement in both. Ability in buying needs selling ability as its final support.

The Purchase.

"The time to keep quiet is oftener than we sometimes think." PRINTERS' INK.

"When a man's listening, he is not telling on himself, and he is flattering the fellow who is."
ALEXANDER H. REVELL.

Ordinarily the burden of the transaction should be placed on the seller. If the buyer picks out and discusses the selling points, if he yields too readily to persuasion, or to the thought that he is under obligation to buy, he makes selling too easy. As a result, he may miss valuable information in regard to the goods, or, it may be, the best terms that the seller would be willing to offer. In brief, if the deal is of sufficient importance, the buyer should cause the seller to put forth his best efforts to make a sale, and in all cases he should require adequate service.

The buyer should have poise. He should guard himself against overhaste. He should continually remind himself that thorough buying is fundamental to ready selling.

The good buyer secures reasonably low prices, and favorable terms. It is easily possible, however, for the buyer who is also a seller to spend too much time

in the attempt to get the lowest prices; the excess of time used in buying could often be more profitably employed in selling. Frequently a part of the selling value of goods is the reputation of the house from which they come. In such a case, the attraction of a lower price offered by a firm not known to the buyer's trade may be more than offset by the probable difficulty in disposing of the goods.

Abnormally low price is a danger signal. It may indicate out-of-date goods, goods of poor quality, or a peculiar condition of the market that the buyer does not understand. He should not buy at an exceptionally low price unless fully satisfied as to the desirability of that which is offered, and as to the reasons why the price is unusual.

Questions and Topics.

1. Why has buying been called the initial art?
2. Buying service.
3. a. Why are buying and selling not antagonistic?
   b. Wherein lies the unity of interest of buyer and seller?
4. a. Activities of the buyer.
   b. Activities of the seller.
   c. Apparent difference in interest of buyer and seller.
   d. Right trade.
   e. Wrong trade.
5. Fundamental relation between buying and selling.
6. What are the three classes of buyers?
7. Why should the buyer of goods for resale be an experienced salesman?

8. a. To open the way to his work, what characteristics should the buyer have?
   b. Why should the buyer avoid flashy and extreme styles in dress?
   c. What rule in dress should be followed by the buyer in a large trade center?
   d. In general, what important characteristics should he have?
9. Position of one employed to buy for another.
10. Knowledge of quantities of goods to buy.
11. a. "Enough is too much."
    b. Reorders.
    c. Carrying goods over.
12. a. Buyer's knowledge of goods.
    b. Buyer's knowledge of methods and practices.
13. a. Buyer's attitude toward advice and information.
    b. Deliberation.
14. Buying of traveling salesmen.
15. Relation of buyer to those who are to sell the goods.
16. Quotation on keeping quiet.
17. Quotation on listening.
18. Why should the burden of the transaction be placed on the seller?
19. Poise in buying.
20. Securing low prices.
21 Abnormally low price.

PART V

SELLING

"Recently . . . the whole operation of salesmanship has been subjected to a careful and scientific analysis which has resulted in the discovery of certain general principles applicable to all selling operation." DR. JAMES E. LOUGH.

"The principles of salesmanship are applied to all the other professions, to all of the trades, to all developments of merchandising, to all phases of business which involve the solicitation by one man and the consent of one man." GEORGE FRENCH.

Definition of Salesmanship.

Salesmanship is the science and art of selling goods and services. As a science, it is organized knowledge of the principles of selling; as an art, it is the application of that knowledge.

The Salesman.

It has been popularly held that salesmen, like poets, are born and not made. The element of truth in the idea seems to have overshadowed that other truth that man is secondarily the maker of himself. That there is a difference in natural ability to sell goods and services, no one will deny; neither will anyone say that natural ability necessarily precludes development. *The best salesman is he whose natural ability has been developed by both theory and practice.*

Personality.

"The word personality describes that which is personal, that which belongs to one human being only." It may refer merely to the outward appearance and manner of expression. We use the term in this way when we say that So-and-so has a pleasing personality. In another sense, it means character, individuality, individual self-hood, that which distinguishes one from all others of the race. Outer personality is really an expression of inner personality, but we are not always shrewd enough to read the outer signs correctly. Ordinarily when we speak of the cultivation of personality we mean the development of character. It will be necessary to use the word in both senses. The context will make clear which meaning is intended.

The outer personality of the salesman should be of such a nature that it will inspire interest, good will, and confidence on the part of the prospective buyer, the prospect, as he is usually called. By his mere approach the salesman arouses some degree of interest. Whether the prospect immediately becomes more interested, indifferent, or antagonistic depends upon the salesman's outer personality. The salesman should be able quickly to make a good impression. His ability to do this depends upon his general appearance, his manner of approach, the expression of his face, the words that he uses, and the tones of his voice. Lasting good will and confidence, however, rest upon something more than a good first impression. If the salesman is to retain these, he must have that inner personality which will stand the test of intimate acquaintance. The distinctive features of this kind of

personality are certain worthy characteristics that have become permanent. Both kinds of personality are capable of cultivation.

The prospect is influenced not only by what the salesman says and does, but by what he is. For that reason, if for no other, the salesman should cultivate himself. He should cultivate both an outer and an inner personality that are worthy of general approval. Such an outer personality is invaluable in making the approach to his work easy, and upon that kind of inner personality depends the establishment and maintenance of the good will upon which business rests.

The salesman should have natural and acquired ability to understand his fellowmen, and to express himself effectively in appearance, word, and deed. He should have knowledge of the principles that are especially applicable to the development of himself, and to the sale of goods and services. His business requires him to deal acceptably with all sorts of people, and to do this, he must have many good traits and habits upon which he can depend.

In considering the traits and habits that are essential to a high degree of excellence in the salesman, we shall follow a plan similar to the one that was used in the study of great habits. We shall, for the greater part, study positives, in the belief that if positives are well understood their negatives will usually require but little attention. It is not necessary to discuss all the positive characteristics that go to make up the personality of the ideal salesman. The following are important:

1. Health
2. Ambition

3. Purpose
4. Knowledge
5. Confidence
6. Observation
7. Punctuality
8. General Appearance
9. Self-Control
10. Courtesy
11. Cheerfulness
12. Use of the Voice
13. Use of the Eyes
14. Tact
15. Adaptability
16. Euthusiasm
17. Ability to Make Friends

Health.

Fundamental to the highest success in any vocation is soundness of mind and body. Insofar as the mind in its relation to the body acts in accordance with law, the result is physical strength and soundness. Opposite results come from mental action that is contrary to law. To dwell in thought upon strength or weakness, or to express their attitudes, is to develop strength or weakness. The proper action of the mind, moreover, is naturally dependent upon the proper functioning of the body.

In considering health we naturally turn first to the well-being of the body. A primary purpose of health of body, however, is health of mind. We should see to it that our bodies aid in the proper functioning of the mind, and thus in the fulfillment of right purposes. In order that they may do so, we

should avoid the needless and injurious use of physical and mental power. We should not draw continually upon our "higher levels of energy." A mother watching over her sick child will go without sleep for a length of time that would be impossible under ordinary circumstances. A student preparing for examination may work in a way that, if long continued, would end in breakdown. Under the stress of unusual incentive, we all draw upon our higher levels of energy. When it is necessary to do so, we should use them without hesitation; but we should have in mind that their continued over-use will be disastrous. It should not be inferred that we are to be habitually sparing of effort in our work or in our play. We should use the energy that our work may reasonably demand, and should throw ourselves whole-heartedly into those kinds of play that serve us as re-creation. Energy is stored up for proper use, but not for dissipation. As far as may be, we should avoid the mental states that are immediately or ultimately injurious. Among those that are especially harmful are fear, anxiety, worry, anger, hatred, despondency, and undue regret for that which cannot be remedied.

More than most vocations, salesmanship requires self-control; and as a usual thing, habitual self-control requires good health. Dr. King says, "All self-control seems to involve the use of the higher brain centers which are first affected by fatigue or any abuse, and self-control becomes increasingly difficult when these centers are overtasked."

What we are to derive from this, as far as the salesman is concerned, is that, if he is to do his work

as he should, he must take good care of himself, and must avoid the dissipation of his energy.

Ambition.

A salesman should be ambitious. He should have a fixed desire to succeed in the business upon which he has entered. Even though he looks upon his position as merely preparatory to that of department head, buyer, or proprietor, his greatest desire, as far as business is concerned, should be to succeed as a salesman so that he may properly prepare himself for the higher position. Confidently to look ahead to a position that will require greater than present ability and that holds out the prospect of proportionate reward, is a worthy ambition. It tends, moreover, toward realization because it serves to give direction and continuity to reasonable effort.

Purpose.

There is a close relation between ambition and purpose. Ambition has more of the idea of desire for something; purpose, more of the idea of determination to attain it. Definite and continued purpose is essential to the fulfillment of ambition. The purpose of the salesman is to sell goods or services. He should keep prominently in mind the thought that he must and will sell goods or services.

Knowledge.

The work of the salesman offers excellent opportunity for the use of the following kinds of knowledge:

1. General information.
2. Knowledge of self.

3. Knowledge of human nature.
4. Knowledge of the needs of the prospect.
5. Knowledge of goods.
6. Knowledge of related departments.

General Information.

That a salesman may meet his prospects on grounds of common interest, he should have a fund of general information on which to draw, and should be well informed as to current news and events. A bit of history, or the latest news in regard to baseball may establish a relationship that will sell a bill of goods, and perhaps open the way to continued trade.

Knowledge of Self.

Properly to direct his own development, one must have a knowledge of himself; he must know what should be weakened or suppressed in his character, and what should be strengthened. "Know thyself" is an injunction that has been handed down for ages, acknowledged good, and but little heeded. Now, however, we are beginning to appreciate the relation that exists between self-knowledge and self-development.

Knowledge of Human Nature.

It is probable that successful salesmen in general would say that their success is largely due to their knowledge of human nature. In these days competing goods are much the same in quality and price, and a sale often depends on the ability of the salesman to meet the human nature requirements of the prospect. To do this he must have a broad knowledge of men, their dispositions, their needs, their

wants, their fancies, even their eccentricities, it may be, and so be able to treat individuals among them in an individual way, in a way that is suited to their particular natures. It is easy to understand that such a knowledge of human nature is not to be acquired in a day, and that much of it can be the product of experience only. So thoroughly should the salesman understand the people to whom his goods are offered that he will know not only how to meet their moods, but also how to make his goods appeal to them.

Knowledge of the Needs of the Prospect.

It is not enough that the salesman understand human nature. He should also have a general knowledge of the needs of his prospect in order to be able to show how the goods or the services offered will meet those needs. Service due to both prospect and employer requires this. In these days of transition, when good theory is still frequently opposed by bad practice, the salesman may not always be able to gain this knowledge from the stated requirements of the prospect. Some buyers think it shrewd to overstate their wants in order to obtain an offer of low prices, or of exceptionally favorable terms. When the real wants of the prospect are made known, the seller may thus be placed at a disadvantage. On the other hand, the prospect may underestimate his requirements because of overcaution, or a lack of knowledge of the real needs of his business. In such a case, the salesman is justified in using his powers to secure a greater order than the prospect at first had in mind.

Some kinds and grades of goods are properly salable to a certain class of people only; and in order

to avoid unsuitable sales and useless attempts to make them, the salesman should know both goods and prospects.

Knowledge of Goods.

Inadequate knowledge in regard to what he offers causes a salesman to be either hesitant or artificial, and places him at a disadvantage in relation to his prospect. On the contrary, a thorough knowledge of his goods enables him to talk and to act naturally. He knows that he has a store of information available if wanted, and that his mind is free to occupy itself with the main features of the sale. Moreover an item of interest about the raw material, or the process of manufacture, or some unusual use of the goods, may be the turning point of the sale. It may stimulate interest, divert attention when that seems advisable, or create an impression of fullness of knowledge that will affect the prospect favorably.

Retail and wholesale salesmen who handle the stock they are selling should have definite knowledge of (1) what it is, (2) where it is, and, (3) how it compares with competing goods. The following incident illustrates a far too common sort of ignorance. A man asked for a certain kind of blue pencil. The salesman, after saying that he did not know whether he had it or not, began to search among a few dozen boxes. Finally the prospect pointed out the right box. He then asked for typewriter paper. A large number of samples were placed before him, and selection was made. The salesman went after the paper, but returned with the information that that kind was not in stock. Such a salesman is a poor advertisement.

The customer expects good service, but that he frequently does not get from salesmen whose knowledge of stock is inadequate.

The salesman should be able to show his goods to advantage, to display or demonstrate them in a way that will make their good qualities evident to the prospect. To do this it is often necessary for him to know about the materials of which his goods are composed, the process of manufacture, and the various uses to which the goods may be put. The manufacturer's name should be known by the salesman as it is often a guaranty of quality, and is thus an attractive feature of the goods. Interest may attach to the place of manufacture, and a knowledge of conditions of manufacture may be especially useful to the salesman in explaining why his goods cost more or less than those of his competitors. With certain kinds of goods it will be helpful to him to be able to state that they are produced under sanitary conditions. This is especially true of food products, and holds in a smaller degree in relation to certain other kinds of goods. In many instances the salesman should be informed in regard to the care that should be taken of the goods as a suggestion to the customer along this line may often serve in the cultivation of good will.

Knowledge of Related Departments.

After the retail or wholesale salesman has mastered the details of his own special work, he should acquire a knowledge of related departments. This will enable him to make his services more acceptable to both his customers and his employers. In the dress

goods department of a large store, for example, a saleswoman served both customer and employer by recommending certain trimming materials that she had seen in the trimming department.

Frequently a part of the work of the salesperson is to tell prospects where to find goods. This necessitates knowledge of the location of stock in various parts of the store. Salespersons, moreover, who are accommodating and skillful in giving directions will probably attract trade to their own departments.

Confidence.

The salesman should believe in himself, his business, his goods, his house, and his prospects.

As to himself, the salesman should believe that he can and will sell goods. This confidence should come from a knowledge of his own character, from the thought that he is well prepared, and from his purpose to put care, energy, and persistence into his work.

The salesman should believe in his business because right selling is service to him who buys and to him who sells. His work is worthy in itself, and affords valuable preparation for work of a still higher order.

The salesman should believe in his goods. Without such belief he will not be able to put sincerity into his selling talk. This is a serious handicap. Even if he succeeds in selling goods in which he does not believe, he injures not only his chances for future trade, but also himself.

Essential to the salesman's best selling talk is confidence in the house that he represents. He should believe in its honesty, ability, and thoroughness, and

in its readiness to do as he says it will do in regard to the transaction in hand.

Confidence induces confidence. A salesman's belief in the prospect tends to stimulate the prospect's belief in him, and thus greatly to increase the probability of trade. Of course, confidence in others should not be allowed to pass into credulity. The salesman should use his judgment to guard against those who are not worthy of confidence.

Observation.

By means of trained powers of observation the salesman is able quickly to interpret his environment, to note the general characteristics of men, and to understand their various moods. Through observation of the place of business, a salesman may obtain a good idea of the sort of man with whom he has to deal. The judgment and taste of the owner or manager are shown in the location and in the exterior of his store, in the arrangement and quality of his goods, and in the appearance and general attitude of those who are in his employ. During the selling talk, keen observation enables the salesman to see the effect of what he says and does, and shows him what is essential to a sale.

Punctuality.

Good business men usually have the habit of being on time. Their time is valuable, and naturally they are not pleased if it is wasted by anyone with whom they have made an appointment. The salesman who is not punctual is not businesslike. He arouses in the prospect an unfavorable opinion which is not easily overcome. If the salesman is unbusinesslike in regard

to his appointments, his prospects may assume that he will not give suitable attention to any business with which he might be entrusted.

Mental states have a tendency to express themselves in physical appearance and action. When you are angered your face may express what we interpret as anger, and you may say or do something that later you will regret. Physical appearance and action react upon mental states. "Frown continually, and you will feel cross; smile, and you will feel cheerful." For our own welfare, therefore, we should cultivate the kinds of expression that will stimulate in us the mental states that we desire. Our mental states, moreover, affect those with whom we come in contact, and we should induce in ourselves those states that will have desirable effects upon those with whom we have to do.

General Appearance.

Naturally the first impression that a prospect gains of a salesman is that which comes from general appearance—the salesman's walk, the way in which he carries his head, the way in which he wears his hat, his indications of poise and businesslike energy, or the lack of them, and his manner of dress. In his general bearing, the salesman should show self-control, respect for himself and his work, and a proper consideration for those with whom he hopes to deal. His dress is as likely to make a first impression as his general bearing. For this reason he should give thought to the kind of impression he wishes it to make. Neatness and good taste in dress are attractive. They indicate good judgment on the part of the

wearer. They tend to give him confidence in himself, and thus to gain for him the respect and confidence of others. Suitable dress is often essential to the feeling of ease that is necessary to effective expression. The salesman should beware of cheapness, and especially of shabbiness in his dress. The shabbily dressed man is often more or less conscious of a feeling of inferiority, and a feeling of inferiority is a feeling of defeat.

Writing on the subject of dress, George Fitch says in effect that the influence of the personality of the seller on the buyer is but partly due to conscious effort at the time of meeting. There is influence in the tying of the shoelaces, the placing of the scarf-pin, the brushing of the hair, as well as in suavity of manner, mellowness of voice, blandness of smile, and subtleties of address.

Self-Control.

"Psychologically, the power of self-control consists chiefly in the power of attention, the power of holding steadily before one the future advantage, the reasons for the better course, the broader wisdom, in spite of the incitements of the present impulse."

DR. HENRY CHURCHILL KING.

The salesman should have himself well in hand. Few kinds of business demand greater self-control than that of the salesman, and often this control has to be exercised under very exasperating circumstances. The salesman must have in himself that element of greatness that will enable him to overlook petty slights and insults. Some prospects still consider rudeness essential to their advantage in trade, or to

their protection against the seller. Usually the salesman should ignore discourtesy, and not allow his irritation to become evident. Persistence in this course will hardly fail to make a good impression on the prospect, and at the same time it will add to the salesman's just confidence in himself.

Self-control is sometimes needed by a salesman to overcome a tendency to timidity, nervousness, over-haste, or over-anxiety. The prospect, if he so desires, may make use of any of these states of mind to obstruct a sale, or to defeat the purpose of the salesman. By making approach difficult or by being brusque or rude, he may increase the timidity or nervousness of the salesman; by insisting on full explanations, he may turn over-haste into confusion; and he may use apparent over-anxiety as a reason for putting obstructions in the way of the sale. These undesirable mental states usually arise from a lack of confidence in oneself, or it may be from self-consciousness. They should be overcome for the time being by dismissing thought of the self, as far as possible, and by centering attention upon the process of the sale.

Poise is power in salesmanship. It is effective because the thought of reserve force that it conveys makes a favorable impression on the prospect.

Courtesy.

Courtesy, according to William Walker Atkinson, is that "respectful demeanor toward others which is the mark of innate refinement and good training." Courtesy opens the way to business, facilitates its transaction, and cultivates good will. With rare ex-

ceptions, it is required under all circumstances. The traveling salesman, for example, usually takes the initiative, and, in a way, asks a favor of the prospect. In such a case, the need of courtesy is evident. The retail salesman deals mainly with invited guests, and must treat them as such, or lose their trade. This rule applies not only to those to whom the salesman really sells, but also, in general, to all who come into the store, whatever may be their purpose. A cordial attitude, pleasant words, and kindly acts on the part of the salesman are business builders and retainers. They serve, moreover, in his own development.

Discourtesy in any kind of business is usually the result of ignorance, lack of self-control, or of a more or less conscious feeling of inability to deal with another on equal terms. In its effects it is powerful to a degree that seems abnormal. Years of courteous treatment may not overcome the effects of a momentary slight or insult. Needless and harmful, discourtesy should have no place in business.

Cheerfulness.

"All doors are open to the sunny-faced man, and he will be invited to enter where the sober-faced, or gloomy individual has to fight his way." In these few words, Mr. James F. Ells has summed up the purely business philosophy of cheerfulness. Similar, but of wider application, is the meaning of the stanza,

"Laugh, and the world laughs with you;
Weep, and you weep alone.
For this sad old earth is in need of mirth;
It has troubles enough of its own."

The earth needs mirth. The business man, forgetting or not understanding life's purpose, often takes its business part too seriously, and confines himself to it too closely. Cheerfulness is contagious. There is burden enough connected with a business of any magnitude, and the man who is responsible for such an enterprise does not care to have his burden added to by the gloom of the one who comes to do business with him. Usually, however, he will welcome him who comes with genuine cheerfulness.

The assumed aspect of cheerfulness on the part of the salesman is commendable in that it tends to produce in him the desired mental state; it should, however, not be allowed to degenerate into affectation. The fixed smile may readily cause the thought of insincerity; and an attempt at wit by him who lacks a sense of humor will usually defeat its purpose.

Use of the Voice.

The salesman should have the sort of voice that is in itself of distinct business value, a pleasing voice, and he should so use it that it will in no way divert the attention of the listener from the thought that the speaker wishes to convey. If a salesman's voice is not naturally of good quality, it should be cultivated.

The salesman's words should be spoken in such a way that the hearer will not have to put forth any unusual effort to understand them. His voice, moderate in pitch, and free from irritating tones, should have the right kind of expression. It should ring true by reason of the truth that it conveys, should arouse interest because of the interest of the one who

speaks, and should never become a merely mechanical means of utterance.

As a help in business, the talking voice deserves far more consideration than it has usually received. The salesman, in the use of his voice, should be persistently and constructively critical.

Use of the Eyes.

The salesman should be able to look the prospect squarely in the face, not in a staring manner, not so steadily or searchingly as to cause embarrassment or uneasiness in the prospect, but in such a manner as the course of talk or other activity may naturally direct. A shifting gaze is usually indicative of undesirable characteristics. Eyes frequently downcast while one is talking, or, under certain circumstances, while listening, may denote timidity, lack of confidence, or an attempt at concealment or other kind of deception. Some people, however, can think best when their eyes are not attending to listener or speaker. A side glance may indicate stealth, suspicion, or coquetry. The salesman should be master of a strong, steady gaze, of which he may make natural use as occasion requires.

Tact.

Tact is a characteristic that comes from the power to discern the mental attitude of those with whom we have to do. It is the ability to say or do that which is well adapted to bring about a desired mental state in others, without causing antagonism or offense. To the salesman it is especially valuable in that it not only smooths the way to business, but also culti-

vates and maintains the good will of those with whom he deals.

Thus far we have studied traits of character under two classifications: first, those characteristics that are general in their nature, but that have a very definite bearing upon the success of the salesman; and second, those modes of expression that are of special significance to the salesman in the approach to his work. There is no distinct line of separation between these classifications, and their purpose is merely to assist in making evident some of the relations between personality and salesmanship. This is true also of a third classification which includes a few of the characteristics which are particularly useful to the salesman while he is engaged in making a sale. Most of the traits already studied have their bearing here also, but those that follow are of special import in this connection.

Adaptability.

Adaptability and tact are closely related. Both require delicate perception, intuition, and a quick and appropriate response. The terms are so alike in meaning that the greater part of what follows in regard to adaptability might be said of tact also; still there is difference as well as resemblance in the significance of the terms. Adaptability is power of adjustment. As compared with tact, it has the wider range of application, and has in it more of thought and of plan.

Adaptability is one of the most important characteristics of the successful salesman. The salesman has to deal with all sorts of people, and the same people

are not always to be dealt with in the same way. Moods are variable. A prospect may be receptive one day, and repellent the next; antagonistic at the beginning of a demonstration, and friendly as soon as his interest is aroused; ready to buy at one moment, and determined not to buy at the moment following. Through his adaptability the expert salesman meets these moods properly. He does not stop to analyze them, he feels them, and consciously or unconsciously adjusts himself to them. If the mood of the prospect is favorable to the result desired, he acts in harmony with it; if unfavorable, he attempts to change it without arousing serious opposition.

Enthusiasm.

As far as the salesman is concerned, enthusiasm is zeal for his work, zeal that comes from belief in his business, belief in his goods, and belief that the prospect will be benefited by the goods. Properly based and used, the enthusiasm of the salesman naturally arouses the enthusiasm of the prospect, and causes him to want to know about the goods that have so much of interest for the salesman, and finally to want those goods himself.

Enthusiasm, however, as an element of lasting success for the salesman, must be based on knowledge; otherwise, through ignorance, he may deceive his customer, and cause future ill will. In and out of business, some are enthusiastic for the very reason that they do not know. That kind of enthusiasm often results injuriously for all concerned.

An excessive display of enthusiasm, even when genuine and warranted by the conditions from which

it comes, may act as a hindrance to sales. It may cause the prospect to think that the salesman is over-anxious to sell, and thus awaken suspicion concerning his sincerity, or it may suggest the thought that he does not know what he is talking about. For this reason, in extreme cases, understatement may sometimes be advisable.

Ability to Make Friends.

It has been said that one of the most prominent traits of successful salesmen is the ability to obtain orders through friendship.

Sales, simple or complex, offer abundant opportunity for the cultivation of friendship. By his general appearance, the way in which he does his work, by addressing the prospect by name, recalling something in regard to his preferences, offering a good suggestion, or performing an unexpected service, the salesman may begin the formation of a business friendship that will long prove pleasant and profitable.

We have but to think of our own inclinations and actions as buyers to understand that the ability to make friends is valuable to the salesman. However, it must not be inferred that a salesman should rely mainly on that sort of ability. Another may readily equal him in that respect, and out-sell him because of superior skill in the way in which he deals with what he has for sale.

Self-Development of the Salesman.

Having studied important characteristics of the efficient salesman, we may now profitably give attention to some of the ways in which these characteristics may be attained.

A well-rounded personality is a great achievement. Essential to its attainment are habitual right thinking, together with persistent, concentrated desire, purpose, and action. Opposed to its attainment are doubt, fear, indifference, inertia, ignorance of possibilities, and the tendency to try to do too many things, or to waste energy on things that are not essential. All of these opposing forces stand squarely in the way of a just development of personality. Within the bounds of reasonable effort, they must be overcome. The salesman should get rid of doubt and fear by dwelling upon the thought that he can do what he should do, and what, with the sanction of his judgment, he has set out to do. If he is hindered by indifference or inertia, he should study his possibilities, and continually remind himself of his obligations; he should form a purpose that is definite and worthy, and make that purpose a regulating force in his life. To gain increasing mastery over himself, he should make use of the constructive power of thought, having ever in mind the value of the repetition of right ideas, and the fact that the brain develops along the lines in which it is frequently exercised. He should enlarge his powers by the frequent repetition of the ideas that he desires to impress upon his mind—such ideas as those of health, ability, cheerfulness, good will, purpose, and deserved success.

The salesman should not attempt to avoid difficulties, but should welcome them because they afford him opportunity to test his ability, to discover his strength and his weakness, to gain just confidence in

himself, and to find out in what ways he is in special need of further development.

Mistakes, failures, and obstacles should not be dwelt upon by the salesman in a way that will result in discouragement. This does not imply that they should receive no consideration. On the contrary, mistakes and failures should be carefully studied in connection with methods for their prevention, and obstacles should be made to suggest the means by which they may be overcome.

The Goods.

Under the subject of the salesman's knowledge we considered several things that are directly connected with the topic before us. There are, however, certain facts in relation to goods that require separate consideration.

In the interests of permanent business, goods should be of the right quality, of the quality that is suited to the requirements of those who buy. Advertising and agreeable service attract trade, service and suitable quality of goods hold it. Moreover, established reliability in regard to the quality of goods decreases the expense of advertising and selling. Reliable quality advertises itself and assists in the sale of the goods to which it has become attached.

To make them readily salable, good goods should have a good appearance. They should be of such finish, and so displayed that they will attract favorable attention. Even in the case of those goods in which fineness or beauty of finish has nothing to do with serviceability, farm implements, for example, extra care and expense in decoration have been found

profitable to the manufacturer because they have rendered his product more salable, and have thus decreased the cost of selling. A plow that is painted red and striped in black will sell more readily than an equally serviceable one upon which but one kind of paint has been used.

Good goods should be sold in a good place. It is in such a place that people expect to find them. The place should be good in location and arrangement, attractive in appearance, and well adapted to the convenience and comfort of those who come to buy. A good place and the right kind of goods constitute a double attraction to the customer.

The Customer.

As a factor in business the customer of today is receiving more kindly consideration than was formerly given him. Those who have things to sell are coming to realize as never before that the customer is the necessary connection between investment and returns, between enterprise and success. The time is here when *the customer is no longer to be exploited, but to be served.*

Business depends upon the satisfaction that the customer derives from goods and service. With this truth in mind the seller of goods should ask himself not only what sort of goods the customer wants, but also in what ways he wishes to be served. From our own experience as buyers of goods we know that the customer wants goods that are right in kind, quality, quantity, and price, and that he wants to have them sold to him in a convenient place by a skilled

salesman. The wants of the buyer of service are very similar.

In general, the customer is not a good buyer, and is more or less conscious of the fact. Usually his knowledge of quality, especially in regard to goods, is quite inadequate. As the buyer of goods pays not only for goods, but also for service, he has a right to expect that those who sell will take reasonable care to prevent him from making unsuitable purchases. When he finds out that he has bought goods that are unfit, he distrusts either the judgment or the intention of the seller, and is at once inclined to do his future trading with someone else. If one buys a bushel of apples and finds the top layer of far better quality than the remainder he rightfully blames the seller, as upon him rests the responsibility of knowing his goods, and of dealing fairly. *The seller protects his own interests in giving protection to the interests of his customer.*

That this regard for the satisfaction of the customer is not mere theory is shown by what is said and done by those whose business it is to sell. Marshall Field & Company say, "that only is service which effects genuine economies for the customer." In recent years, many firms readily refund the money paid for goods if the customer expresses dissatisfaction. The following, addressed to the customer, was found on the back of a merchandise envelope given out by a dry goods store:

"Your interests and ours are very closely linked. We hope that this sale will prove one of the 'links of a chain of purchases.' The customer's satisfaction is an asset that we try to preserve carefully. If you

think this purchase unworthy of the price, please bring it back. Our guarantee of satisfaction always stands good *without* as well as *within* the store."

All of this indicates that those who sell are coming to realize that business depends upon service to the customer, and that the customer is not well served unless, in the main, he is pleased with the service that he has received.

The Sale.

A sale of goods is a transfer, for a valuable consideration, of the right of ownership. A sells B a wagon for $80, and thus transfers to him the right of ownership, the right of possession and use. A sale of services is a transfer, for a valuable consideration, of a partial right of control, of direction of certain mental and physical powers. A lawyer, in consideration of a fee, agrees to give advice to a client, and thus transfers to him the right to demand that the lawyer shall use certain mental and physical powers in the interest of the client.

It is repeatedly said that the sale is made in the mind of the buyer. The statement is incorrect. The sale begins when the seller begins to think of it, when he forms its prototype; it ends when the buyer sufficiently signifies his acceptance of what is offered by the seller. It is, therefore, the result of action of both seller and buyer.

There are principles and methods that apply more or less definitely to sales in general. These we shall first consider, and then take up the subject of sales under special conditions.

Sales are of various classes, and no two sales of

the same class are made under circumstances that are identical. In sales, the human element is prominent, and this is an element of great variation. Not all principles and methods apply to any class of sales, much less to any one sale. It is for this reason that the salesman depends so greatly upon his adaptability, and that he must use his skill in the selection of principles and methods that are suitable to individual cases.

Derived Outline of Sale.

It will be helpful at this point to have before us an outline of the sale, although it will not be definitely followed until we come to the subject of specialty sales.

In his book, "The Psychology of Salesmanship," W. W. Atkinson gives an outline of the mental states that are usually manifested by the buyer in an original purchase. The outline is given below with the insertion of numbers 8, 9, and 10, the change of his eighth and ninth to numbers 11 and 12, and a substitution for his last number. With this outline may be usefully correlated those activities of the seller which tend to induce the mental states that are natural to the buyer, and to assist in their normal action. From this correlation, we may, for the greater part, derive the outline of the sale.

We need not expect an exact correlation. Mental states merge imperceptibly into one another; activities that result from mental states, naturally merge in the same way; hence there can be no exact correlation of the activities of one person with the mental states of another. Moreover, a part of the

purpose of the activities of the seller is to lead the mind of the buyer from one state to another, from involuntary attention through the intervening states to thought that will express itself in such action as will complete the purchase. This necessarily interferes with correlation. However, an approximate correlation will be helpful in the development of the outline of the sale, and will be of assistance to the seller in understanding how to influence the mind of the buyer.

Correlation of the Activities of the Seller with the Mental States of the Buyer.

I States of Mind Natural to the Buyer	II Correlated Activities of the Seller	III Derived Outline of Sale
1. Involuntary attention	1. Gaining attention	1. Approach and 2. Gaining attention
2. First impression	2. Making favorable first impression	
3. Curiosity	3. Arousing curiosity	3. Arousing interest
4. Associated interest	4. Relating the known to the unknown	
5. Consideration	5. Effecting transition	
6. Imagination	6. Suggestion of uses or benefits	
7. Inclination		

8. Investigation	7. Demonstration	
	8. Assertion, Argument, Substantiation, Meeting objections, Appeal to instincts, such as desire of possession, desire for comfort, protection, etc.	4. Producing conviction
9. Conviction		
10. Desire		
11. Deliberation	9. Reserve facts, arguments and suggestions, Recapitulation of strong points and other points that have appealed to the prospect.	5. Inducing decision
12. Decision		
13. Thought that causes acceptance of offer	10. Suggestion, Persuasion	6. Inducing action

As an aid in understanding the states indicated in column I, a specific illustration will be useful. Mr. X, a business man who has never seen or heard of a multigraph, goes into Mr. Y's office where such a machine is in operation, and where orders for the machine are taken. 1. His attention is attracted to the machine. (Involuntary attention.) 2. He receives the impression that the machine is new to him. (First impression.) 3 He wants to know what it is for. (Curiosity.) 4. He is interested because it does work similar to that of the mimeograph. (Associated interest.) 5. He wonders if such a machine would

be worth while in his business. (Consideration.) 6. He thinks that perhaps it might save time in getting out circular letters. (Imagination.) 7. If so, he would like to have it. (Inclination.) 8. He wishes to find out what the machine will do, and how much it costs. (Investigation.) 9. He is convinced that the machine saves time when large numbers of copies are required, and that it would be worth more to him than its price. (Conviction.) 10. He wants the machine. (Desire.) 11. He considers the relative advantages of investing in this machine or in something else that he needs in his business. (Deliberation.) 12. He decides in favor of the machine, but hesitates about making his decision known. (Decision.) 13. He thinks that he may as well order it now as at any other time, and signs the order. (Thought that causes acceptance of offer.)

In column II are listed the activities of the seller that are intended to aid in inducing desired mental states in the mind of the buyer, and in column III these activities are combined under general headings.

From the derived outline we obtain, with slight modification, the outline given below.

Outline of Sale.

I. Pre-Approach.
II. Approach.
III. Gaining Attention.
IV. Demonstration.
    a. Arousing Interest.
    b. Producing Conviction.
V. Inducing Decision.
VI. Inducing Action.

Fundamental Ideas.

We have seen that one of the fundamental ideas of modern salesmanship is that of creating and maintaining the good will of the customer in order to make business permanent. We know that the good will of the customer depends on the satisfaction that he receives through goods and service. From this it is evident that salesmanship must not be wholly centered in the making of sales. On the contrary, the seller should keep prominently in mind the facts that the structure of his business "rests upon the good will of the community," and that the essence of business is service. These ideas should continually give direction to the methods of selling.

The seller, moreover, should understand that good will when once gained may not be a permanent acquisition, and that it should be guarded as well as cultivated. He should realize that good will may be lost through the lack of courtesy and accommodation, through the sale of unsuitable goods, or through overcharging, over-selling, over-influencing, or using any other methods that are displeasing or detrimental to those who buy. These ideas may be condensed into the brief injunction—*Make sales that make sales.*

General Procedure.

It is not within our province to consider all kinds of selling, and we shall limit ourselves chiefly to those kinds that cover a wide range of activity. There are certain lines of action that usually apply to the business of selling whatever the circumstances may be. It will be well therefore first to study the principles of procedure that are capable of general application.

As a salesman, you will be called upon to make sales under a great diversity of conditions. This will require adaptability. Aside from fitting yourself into changing environments, to be successful in selling, you must properly meet the different moods of widely differing people. In attempting to do this a carefully detailed plan of the ways in which you are going to meet your prospect may not always be advisable, and may even result in defeating its own purpose. You cannot know in what mood, or moods your prospect may be, and a plan too definitely impressed upon your mind may inappropriately persist in carrying itself out. There is good advice for the salesman in the old maxim that one must trust something to the moment.

A set form of approach, introduction, demonstration, or of inducing action, is likely to attract too much attention to what we may call the selling machinery. This machinery is necessary, but its operation should not be evident to the prospect. If it becomes evident, the attention of the prospect is diverted from that which is offered to the means which the salesman is using to induce acceptance of the offer.

Attention.

Of course, the first thing to be done in the presence of the prospect is to gain his attention. Usually his first attention is attracted by what he sees; hence much importance attaches to the impression that is made in the approach. For the same reason, in order to fix the attention of the prospect on what is offered, the article or the outlined offer should, as a usual

thing, be quickly placed before him. The kind of interest that will be apt to lead to a sale will not be aroused until the attention of the prospect is centered on what is offered.

Interest.

In the natural order, interest follows attention. The salesman, however, cannot rely upon a merely passing interest, or that which is general in its nature. He must connect his offer with some advantage of the prospect, and thus make it personal to him. William Maxwell, vice-president of the Thomas A. Edison Company, says: "I never knew anyone to buy a photograph of a banquet which he had attended if the photographer failed to get him in the picture." *You must get your prospect in the picture;* and usually it will be well to pose him in a prominent position. You must hold before the mind of the prospect ideas that will be pleasing to him, directly or indirectly. The mind constantly seeks satisfaction in the pleasurable, or in that which tends to prevent the unpleasurable.

The Selling Talk.

In most kinds of selling, the salesman naturally places much reliance upon the selling talk. The chief purpose of the selling talk is to induce decision to buy. If this were always an easy task, much of the study of salesmanship would not be needed. Frequently, however, the salesman finds obstacles in his way. He may have to overcome inertia and indifference by arousing interest; ignorance, incredulity, and prejudice, by clear demonstration; and indecision or ob-

stinacy, by suggestion that will induce the prospect to think that he is acting on his own initiative.

Manner of Utterance.

Indistinct or over-rapid utterance should be carefully avoided. You should make it as easy as possible for your prospect to understand your words; the greater part of his attention is needed on the thoughts that you have to convey. Faulty utterance, moreover, may indicate lack of interest in what you are saying, and will certainly stand in the way of developing interest on the part of your prospect. If what you have to say is important and new to your prospect, he will need time in which to grasp your ideas. Dwell upon ideas according to their importance. Use your voice skillfully, talk with moderate speed, naturally, distinctly, forcefully.

When Not to Talk.

There is a time to talk, to listen, and to stop talking. The effect of many a good word is lost because its time of utterance is poorly chosen. What to say is important; when to say it may be more important. Ordinarily it is not advisable to attempt to talk to a prospect who is not ready to listen. Attention is a prerequisite of interest, interest precedes desire, and without desire on the part of the prospect the possibility of the right sort of sale is negligible.

Avoid too free expression of opinion, and needless explanation. See to it that your prospect has a good understanding of what you offer, but do not underestimate his intelligence.

Cultivate the rare but charming faculty of being a good listener. From the prospect you may learn

much that will be of assistance to you in making a sale. The prospect, moreover, is often pleased to express his opinion, and in doing so, becomes in his turn receptive to what you may have to say. More than this, if you are a good listener you cause the prospect to think well of himself, and thus put him in an attitude that is favorable to the business in hand.

From what has been said it follows that one of the times when not to talk is when the prospect is talking. This is merely a general rule. Under some circumstances, interruption may be perfectly proper. For instance, if it is clear that the prospect has a mistaken impression, it may be a good thing to interrupt in order to set him right. Another time when you should not talk is when you have talked enough. Too much talk during your demonstration may weary your prospect, and cause him to lose interest. Many prospects whose minds are well made up like to do business in their own way, and to them the over-talkative salesman may be disagreeable. Too much talk after your prospect has reached a favorable decision may give him time for adverse consideration, or your apparently needless efforts may lead him to suspect your offer, and thus result in a change of decision. After the sale, if your customer is of a wavering disposition, too much talk on your part may afford him opportunity to change his mind, and thus to undo the result of your efforts. With due regard to the value of friendly expression, you should be constantly alert to prevent your talk from exceeding the requirements of the situation.

Knowledge of Selling Talk.

You should know your selling talk thoroughly. While this is a matter of first importance, you should not become so automatic in regard to it that you always work along fixed lines. You should, however, be so familiar with your selling talk that at whatever point you may take it up it will practically take care of itself, and thus leave you free to observe its effect, and to adjust yourself to the changing moods of the prospect. Not only is a thorough knowledge of the selling talk effective, but it tends to prevent over-talking, and too much of that kind of talk that is merely tentative in its nature.

Price.

Ordinarily it is advisable not to mention price until the interest of the prospect has been aroused, and he has a good knowledge of what is offered. Sometimes, however, price is attractive, and should early be called to the attention of the prospect. When the price is unusually low, it may be well to feature it in the selling talk. The salesman should remember, however, that a low price may arouse suspicion, and while using it as an inducement, he should not fail to give a reason why the price is low.

To a large class of buyers, particularly those who have abundant means, high price is a special attraction. Some of them derive satisfaction from mentioning the price to their friends. Then, too, under normal conditions high price is an evidence of good style and quality. In dealing with those to whom these elements make a strong appeal, who care more for them than they do for the money needed in pay-

ment, the price should be mentioned in the first part of the selling talk.

Argument and Controversy.

There is a clear distinction between argument and controversy that should be understood by those who are in the business of selling. Reasonable argument intended as an aid to clearness in demonstration is perfectly proper and often indispensable in a selling talk. This kind of argument may be met by objections on the part of the prospect, and yet be of value in making a sale. When, however, the spirit of debate enters into what is said, argument becomes controversy, arouses opposition and obstinacy, and tends very strongly to prevent the transaction of business. In business, argument for the sake of argument should be avoided. It often results in loss of self-control by one or both of those who are engaged in it, stimulates resistance in the prospect, and makes trade difficult if not impossible. Even in general conversation with a prospect, there are certain topics that should not be dwelt upon unless there is evident agreement. Prominent among these are religion and politics. Controversy on these subjects usually stirs up antagonism, and leads to display of temper. If it should not result in either of these, it would probably take time that should be given to business. If, however, there is agreement on these topics, conversation in regard to them may result in the cultivation of friendly relations.

Suggestion.

The value of suggestion in selling depends upon the type of mind of the prospect, and the skill with

which suggestion is made. Prospects of the impulsive type are naturally more suggestible than those who usually reach decision through the process of reason. Suggestion and argument are not antagonistic, and both, in their proper proportions, are effective in the making of sales. With all kinds of prospects, suggestions of things to do, such as operating a machine in which the action is simple, or examining the texture of a piece of goods, will be helpful in inducing decision. Tactful suggestion as to what to say or do may serve to give the prospect a needed impulse to final action.

Over-Persuasion.

The attempt to persuade a prospect to buy what he does not want is likely to end in failure of one kind or another. If the prospect refuses to buy, as ordinarily he should under the circumstances, the time of the salesman is wasted; it is even worse than wasted if the prospect feels that he has been subjected to an unpleasant experience. If over-persuasion induces the prospect to buy, he feels more or less consciously that advantage has been taken of him, and that he will not give opportunity for further action of a similar kind.

Observation.

Throughout the selling talk, in order that he may know whether he is making the right impressions, the salesman should carefully note the effect of what he says and does. Because every idea that enters the mind tends to express itself in physical action and appearance, the salesman should closely observe his

prospect in order to gain ideas that will give direction to his own activities.

Specialty Sales.

The widest range in any field of salesmanship, not including advertising, is found in that of specialty sales, those in which the salesman is engaged in selling but one kind of goods or services. Specialty sales include sales of goods from the penny paper to the railway system, and of services from the "shine" to the promotion, organization, or management of a vast industrial enterprise.

In the more difficult of this kind of sales, usually those involving large interests, or those made by traveling agents who sell expensive appliances, we shall find to a greater extent than in any other the application of the principles and methods of salesmanship, and shall be able most closely to follow the outline of the sale. Sales of specialties in retail stores present less difficulties than the kinds above indicated, and are subject to many of the conditions of ordinary retail sales. For example, if a prospect comes into a store and inquires for a sewing machine, he has taken the initiative, assisted in the approach, and indicated what will gain his attention, and be likely to arouse his interest.

For the most part what is said in regard to specialty sales is equally applicable to sales made by commercial travelers who represent the wholesale trade.

The outline of the sale as given on page 112 will be used in connection with specialty sales, sales on the road, and retail sales. Not all parts of the out-

line will be readily apparent in every sale. In many sales of the more ordinary kind, several parts may be so obscured that analysis would be necessary to show their presence.

Pre-Approach.

There are conflicting views as to the limits of the pre-approach. One writer makes it include that part of the salesman's preparation which results in a thorough knowledge of the goods, while another treats it as a part of the approach itself. A middle ground seems preferable. The pre-approach, then, for the greater part, may be considered as preparation for a definite sale.

The pre-approach consists of those activities of the salesman which are preliminary to his approach to the prospect. The work in the pre-approach is largely that of obtaining such information about the prospect as may be of use in other parts of the process of the sale. A traveling salesman, for instance, going over his route for the first time, finds out his prospect's name, the location of his place of business, the amounts of previous orders, it may be, and, if the question of credit is likely to arise, he informs himself as to the prospect's financial standing. It will, moreover, often be to the advantage of the salesman to learn some of the prominent characteristics of the one with whom he hopes to do business. If, however, some of the characteristics of which he learns are of such a nature as to arouse doubt of success, he should not dwell upon them longer than may be necessary to enable him to think of the ways in which they should be met. As the salesman comes into the pros-

pect's environment, observation of the locality, and of the place of business should give him further useful information in regard to the one with whom he has to deal. If the salesman has samples, a part of the work of the pre-approach is to arrange them so that they may be suitably displayed. At times, another essential thing is that the salesman should get himself in a right mental attitude toward his work. This thought is worthy of separate consideration.

A Right Mental Attitude.

Many a sale is lost because the salesman thinks that he will not be able properly to do his part. This may be the result of nervousness, timidity, the newness of the business, insufficient preparation, or a general lack of confidence. The mental attitude that comes from these sources, or from any one of them, is not the right one in which to attempt to make sales. If the effect of such an attitude ended with the salesman, it would be serious enough to demand his earnest attention; but it does not stop there. That sort of attitude influences the prospect to the detriment of the salesman, and makes selling doubly difficult. As Atkinson says, "You must get yourself right before you can get anything else right."

If necessary, create in yourself a mental attitude that will help in the business at hand. *Master your forces, and make them serve you.* If you doubt the outcome of your efforts, find the cause of your doubt and overcome it by dwelling upon its opposite, or, upon those things that will produce its opposite. For illustration, if you fear that you will not sell because your prospect is reputed to be difficult to

deal with, reassure yourself by dwelling upon the facts that you know your goods or your proposition thoroughly, that you have a good knowledge of human nature, that you can readily adapt yourself to the moods of your prospect, that you have something good to offer, that he ought to accept it, and that you are able to make him see that he ought to accept it. If you are depressed, assume the outward expression of cheerfulness, dwell upon former successes, say to yourself that you will do your best, and that, even if you fail this time, there will be many other opportunities in which you will not fail. Trace your wrong attitude to its source, and then begin at once to stop the source, or to overcome the effects of its activity.

As an aid to a right mental attitude, have your machine or your samples in the best possible condition. If you have papers to show, see that they are in order so that you can readily produce any one of them that you may need. This will give you confidence, enable you to avoid waste of time, and, perhaps, prevent confusion that would place you at a disadvantage before your prospect.

Unless you are thoroughly familiar with your proposition, review it carefully before making the approach. Doing this will tend to give you a readiness that may prevent you from being surprised by some question or objection of the prospect that would be to you a cause of embarrassment. The unexpected in selling should "be met by preparedness." If your business is important, it would frequently be well to follow this advice of Mr. Ells: "Put yourself in the

other man's place, try to tear down the argument that you have built up. If *you* can, he *may*."

Conclude the establishment of a right mental attitude by saying that you will make the sale if possible, and then dismiss the matter until the approach begins. Do not overtrain.

Changes in Emphasis.

Some of the comparatively modern ideas that are having their effect on business will necessarily cause a change in the relative importance of certain parts of the sale. As service to the buyer, for example, causes his suspicion and antagonism to disappear, the relative importance of first impressions will decrease, and, for that reason, the preliminary steps will give place somewhat to the demonstration. Something, too, will be taken from the final step, inducing action, and that also will be added to the demonstration.

New conditions will be met in new ways. The superficial assurance, the extreme persistence, and the dominance of personality that have been so characteristic of many salesmen in the past, will lose much of their effectiveness, and will be largely replaced by ability in demonstration that rests on preparation to sell. The sale as a whole will increasingly tend to become cooperative.

What has been said about change in importance should not be understood as indicating that any of the outlined parts of the sale should be slighted. On the contrary, it is probable that no one of them has been adequately treated. It should be clearly seen, however, that, under right conditions, the demonstration is the main part of the sale, and that it and

preparation for it should receive a greater share of consideration than has been given to them heretofore.

Approach.

The way in which you make your approach to a prospect frequently determines the value of your opportunity for making a sale. If you are not acquainted with him, observation should aid you as you enter his immediate environment to get further ideas upon which to base an estimate of his character. If your prospect is a merchant, you should notice his window display, and, on entering the store, should quickly get a general idea of the amount and quality of his stock and furnishings, and of the system and orderliness of the store as a whole. You should at the same time note the appearance and attitude of those who are in his employ. If he is a manufacturer, his factory, his offices, and the appearance of his employees should afford you much desirable information in regard to his characteristics.

First Impressions.

"The only right way to gain a man's liking is to deserve it." ATKINSON.

As soon as you in any way attract the attention of the prospect to yourself your approach has begun, and you are making impressions upon him the influence of which is doubtless greater than can readily be understood. First impressions seem to carry with them an indefinable something that meets at once with favor, disfavor, or indifference. "A man radiates his mental state," and those whom he approaches are affected by this radiation.

The approach to a stranger should be conservative; it must not antagonize. If the impression made is favorable, so much the better. A favorable first impression, however, is not absolutely necessary to a good salesman; all that he really needs is a fair opportunity, and that he has if he does not antagonize. As business becomes scientific, as it rests more and more on the basis of efficiency, the salesman will come to rely more and more on his ability to demonstrate. He will impress his prospect by means of the skill with which he does his work.

Ordinarily the time and place of the approach should be those that are customary in the business. Men of affairs need as much leisure as they usually allow themselves, and many of them are inclined to resent the intrusion of business outside of business hours and places.

When it can be avoided, it is not advisable to interrupt a prospect when he is occupied on something on which his attention is fixed, or on which he may be pretending that his attention is fixed. You are calling upon him. Wait until he gives the signal to proceed, and do not allow impatience to express itself in any way.

Be sure that you are approaching the right person. Address him, introduce yourself if necessary, and immediately say something that will interest him either in you, or in what you have to offer. Your first sentence should be direct and positive.

Always avoid an apologetic attitude unless there is something for which you should apologize. If there is something that needs explanation, as, for example, not being on time, or something that was wrong in

relation to a previous transaction, that should be attended to at once.

Make the introduction to your selling talk brief and to the point. Have yourself well in hand, and show by your bearing your belief in your business, a just amount of confidence in yourself, and your respect for the one with whom you hope to deal. Timidity and hesitancy invite aggression on the part of those prospects who believe that their success depends upon having the advantage of those with whom they have to do. Indicate by your manner that your business is sufficiently important to demand the consideration of your prospect. Look your prospect in the face frankly and naturally. If the business is of such a nature that you cannot do this, you owe it to yourself to change your business.

Do not at first try to be complimentary. The purpose of compliments at this time is so evident that they are apt to cause the prospect to question your motives, and to put him on his guard against you. Save your compliments for some place in the selling talk where they will not appear to be premeditated, and where, if skillfully used, they may be very effective.

Never ask the prospect if he wants to buy anything. The pocketbook is timid. Many people want things, and ought to have things that they do not want to buy. Stimulate desire before suggesting an action that might cause the prospect to hesitate.

Do not ask the prospect if you can sell him something. Selling is your business, and the chances are that he is not especially interested in what you can do in regard to it. Moreover, the idea of your selling

is too closely related to the idea of his buying, and he is probably not ready for that.

Rebuffs.

It is not to be expected that all prospects will be friendly, or even courteous. Some people consider it a part of their business to be unapproachable and intentionally rude, yet they have an innate admiration for self-control. To meet such people properly requires unusual poise, and the salesman who can receive these rebuffs without apparent displeasure or discomfort at once rises in their esteem. Should the prospect grossly transgress the rules of courtesy, the best rebuke is often a lack of attention—at least a lack of response. Very rarely strenuous measures may be effective.

Gaining Attention.

"The essential characteristic of attention is . . . activity directed toward some end. Ultimately this end is the self. The various activities of attention are based in the interests of the self, and directed towards ends which will satisfy the self, by fulfilling these interests." DEWEY.

"At any moment any one of us has just so much attention to give to the man who is addressing us. Some of this attention is necessarily taken up by the effort of seizing what he is saying, and, therefore, the less his manner attracts our notice, the more attention we shall have to bestow upon the matter. The more clearly and the more simply he can deliver his message, the more amply we can receive it."

HERBERT SPENCER.

From the first quotation we should understand that, in order to make his attention-gaining activities most effective, the salesman should attract attention to some end that will further the interests of the prospect. From Spencer we should see that after the demonstration is entered upon the salesman should avoid diverting attention to himself, that his message should be clear and simple, and that it should be delivered in a way that will cause it to be easily understood by the prospect.

If your prospect is not ready to listen to you, do not try to force attention by loud talking, or by any discourteous interruption. Should you succeed in gaining attention by either of these methods, it is probable that it would not be of a kind that would result to your advantage. If it is evident that your prospect cannot at the time give you a sufficient hearing, get him, if possible, to make an appointment with you. If you cannot do that, leave politely, and call again. If your prospect seems to be playing for time with the purpose of placing you at a disadvantage, quietly await his pleasure, and say something interesting the moment he gives you the opportunity.

Appeal to Instincts.

In gaining attention, the first sentence that relates to what you have to offer should appeal to a fundamental human instinct. The one great instinct is to be satisfied—to have enough, to do enough, and to be enough. This is divided into numerous subsidiary instincts. Among these, the instincts that are especially susceptible to the appeal of the salesman are (1) curiosity, the innate desire to know, to relate our

environment to ourselves; (2) acquisitiveness, the desire to possess; (3) the instinct to save, whether it be effort, time, or wealth; (4) the desire for recreation, for pleasant diversion, and the rebuilding of our powers; (5) constructiveness, the desire to change the form or relation of material things so that they will better serve us; (6) imitation, the tendency to do as others do; (7) emulation, the desire to equal or to excel; (8) affection, insofar as it is an impulse to do good to others; and (9) fear, which may be dwelt upon when you offer something that has protection from harm or loss as its special purpose.

In preparing your selling talk, use your attention-gaining idea with a view to calling up in the mind of the prospect the thought of satisfying a fundamental instinct that may be naturally associated with that which is offered. It is well to have more than one attention-gaining idea, so that this part of the talk may be adapted to different prospects.

What is offered may appeal to several instincts: a cash register, for example, to curiosity, acquisitiveness, emulation, and the fear of loss; a box of tools to acquisitiveness, constructiveness, the instinct to save, curiosity, emulation, recreation, and affection.

During the process of the sale, the good salesman will, if necessary, appeal to all appropriate instincts. To select the one to which appeal should first be made requires a careful use of analysis and judgment.

A General View.

If what is offered has numerous selling points, the prospect should be given a general view of the whole before details are dwelt upon. To elaborate details

as you first come to them would be likely to weary the prospect before you could succeed in changing his attention into interest. Some statements of William James apply here. "There is no such thing as voluntary attention sustained for more than a few seconds at a time. What is called sustained voluntary attention is a repetition of successive efforts which bring back the topic to the mind." It follows that, especially before attention has been strengthened by interest, the salesman should present changing views of the subject of his offer in rather rapid succession. The view in outline tends to arouse interest in the whole, and a desire to know more in regard to special points. Aside from this, its effect on the prospect affords the salesman an opportunity to determine what points should be especially dwelt upon. It may happen, moreover, that the outline selling talk will be sufficient to produce conviction, and to stimulate desire to a point where the final step is next in logical order.

Demonstration.

We come now to the most important part of the sale, the demonstration. This is divided into two steps, arousing interest, and producing conviction. The division is somewhat arbitrary because the demonstration extends to more than these steps. These, however, are the principal ones. It is not always easy to decide just where the demonstration begins. To demonstrate, according to the meaning of the term as used in connection with salesmanship, is not merely to point out; it is also to show the truth or falsity of a thing in a convincing manner. Pointing out may

be used in gaining attention; whether it also demonstrates depends upon the receptive capacity of the prospect. This shows that demonstration may or may not begin in the process of gaining attention. Attention, when not forced by the one who gives it, naturally merges into interest. Who shall say where the demonstration ceases to gain attention and begins to arouse interest? Neither can we say definitely what portion of the demonstration arouses interest, and what produces conviction. The same thing may aid in doing both. We can see clearly that the demonstration cannot be definitely limited; and what is true of this part of the outline is true of other parts also. All are more or less closely interrelated.

It is, of course, not always necessary to make a complete demonstration. *The time to induce final action is any time when it seems evident that the desire of possession in the prospect is sufficiently strong.*

Arousing Interest.

Interest as related to a purchase is a feeling on the part of a prospect of the importance to him personally of that which is offered for sale. This sort of interest is a prerequisite of the continued attention of the prospect. It must be aroused, maintained, and increased. You cannot induce your prospect to hold his attention on that in which he is not interested. To maintain his interest, you must cause him to center his thoughts on things that are associated with his desires and habits. What is of advantage to him should be the prominent feature of your demonstration. Your selling talk should be so related to the desires and habits of your prospect that he will fol-

low your demonstration attentively because it is agreeable for him to do so. His attention should be constantly stimulated by his interest.

In order quickly to interest the prospect, you should know the main point of contact between his desires and what you have to offer. To obtain this knowledge you may need to ask questions concerning his business. Skillful questioning, moreover, may serve the double purpose of showing you the desired point of contact, and of stimulating the interest of the prospect by inducing him to talk about his own affairs. It is well to get your prospect to talk, providing your success in that line is not too abundant. There is good sense in the injunction, "Talk *with* and not *at* or *to* your prospect."

When the point of contact is found, show your prospect clearly why he needs what you offer, and how your goods or services will contribute to his well-being and satisfaction.

Meeting Objections.

While you are working at any point in the sale, from gaining attention to inducing final action, the prospect, if he is of the right sort, will be apt to offer objections. If he has objections, it is no more than good business policy for him to make them known. A clear demonstration naturally covers usual objections, and by anticipating them, may take away their force. To demonstrate clearly is generally the best possible way to meet objections; you should not, however, go out of your road to find objections to meet. Objections indicate dissatisfaction, and you

should dwell upon the satisfying features of what you have to offer.

Objections need not necessarily be looked upon as obstructions to a sale. Frequently they are indications of interest, and may be of assistance to a salesman. A point well made in answer to an objection is often much stronger than it would be if there had been no objection to answer. Ordinary objections often suggest the way in which they should be met. "I don't want it," and "I don't need it," may point out that the need for it has not been made sufficiently evident. "Your price is too high," suggests emphasis on comparative values. "It costs too much," and "I can't afford it," indicate better explanation of investment features—the earning and saving power of what you offer. Under some circumstances, these objections may be met by showing how the acceptance of your offer will add to the comfort, pleasure, or protection of the prospect, or of those in whom he is especially interested. The skillful salesman can often handle objections so that they will further his own interests.

As a usual thing, answer an objection when made. Do not dwell upon it needlessly. To do so would have a tendency to increase its significance in the mind of the objector. If it seems advisable to postpone the answer to an objection, give the reason for doing so. For illustration: "I think, Mr. X, that that point will be clear to you as we proceed with the demonstration. If not, then we will take up the matter definitely." Of course, you must keep the objection in mind, and see if it needs further attention.

Avoid contradicting your prospect. Flatly to deny

the soundness of his opinion probably would arouse in him the desire to maintain his position. It would likely stimulate his obstinacy and change your demonstration into a debate, or into a series of contrary statements. An instance of the latter is shown in the following:

A lady, evidently well informed in matters of dress, went to a store with a friend who was looking for a suit. To assist the saleswoman in getting the point of contact, she described a suit that she had recently seen in another city. "Oh," said the saleswoman, "that was a last year's style." The lady replied that the suit that she was trying to describe was certainly a very late style. "Well, we had it last year, anyway," snapped the saleswoman. Whatever the facts may have been, the saleswoman, through her lack of adaptability, not only lost the chance of making a sale, but also of gaining the good will of two people who might have become valuable customers. The situation could have been properly met by saying, "We haven't anything quite like that; but I shall be pleased to show you something that we have just received, and that I think will interest you."

If you wish to differ from an opinion that has been expressed by the prospect, avoid beginning with the word "No." Use rather a form of statement that indicates deliberation, something like, "Well, as it seems to me, this . . ."

When an objection is of minor importance, let it stand. A lack of insistence on your part may increase the prospect's confidence in you, and perhaps add to his good nature by raising his opinion of

himself. At the same time, it leaves you free to devote your efforts to essential points.

An objection may often be skillfully handled in an indirect way. For example, "That may be true in regard to some machines; but that very thing is guarded against here by this little device. You can see for yourself how it works." "What you say, Mr. X, is quite true in general; but . . ." This makes it easy for a prospect to yield a point without changing his expressed opinion. If you have not fully convinced him, you have probably weakened his objection without arousing his antagonism, and he will still be receptive to what you may have to offer.

If an unanswerable objection is offered, frankly admit its force; explain, if possible, why the thing to which objection is made is as it is, and point out offsetting advantages.

Throughout the process of the sale you should not permit yourself to show that you are in any way antagonized by the prospect. Antagonism arouses antagonism. In meeting objections, you should be especially careful to avoid any appearance of displeasure. Not only should you maintain self-control, but you should meet objections in a way that shows your interest in making things clear to the prospect.

Producing Conviction.

"The 'reason why' is in the goods and the circumstances of the prospect."

PRINTERS' INK.

Some customers are won by argument, some by assertion, some by suggestion, and most by a combination of the three.

When you have a good proposition to offer—and you should have no other—analyze the process that convinced you of its goodness. The same process may be useful in convincing your prospect.

Do not take it for granted that people know what they want. It is a part of your business to assist them to find out what they want, to help them to help themselves.

Two Phases of Conviction.

There are two phases of conviction that you should keep in mind during the demonstration. One is the belief on the part of the prospect that what you offer is what you say it is, and that it will do what you say it will do; the other is that what is offered is of such worth to him that it will be to his advantage to pay a fair price for it. The first phase of conviction, essential as it is, does not result in a sale. You may be in the business of selling airplanes. You may convince your prospect that what you say in regard to the machine is true, and yet he may not care enough for it to buy it at half its cost. If you are to make a sale, you will have to convince the prospect that the airplane would be worth more to him than the price he would have to give in exchange for it. While both phases of conviction should be held in mind, it is not necessary to try to produce them separately. To attempt to do so would probably result in making your talk too mechanical.

General Directions.

According to a well known principle, you should lead your prospect to interpret the unknown by means of the known. His knowledge is your point

of departure. As far as may be, begin with what he knows and add to it. If he expresses his ideas freely, treat them appreciatively. If need be, ask questions to find out what he knows about what you have to offer. In either case, connect what he knows with important things that he does not know, and thus make use of his knowledge as a means of stimulating his interest.

Avoid demonstrating with any indication of haste or anxiety, and do not allow your enthusiasm to outrun the ideas upon which it is based. The real enthusiasm of the salesman is invaluable in producing conviction, but it may readily become harmful if it appears excessive or artificial.

Throughout the entire demonstration, your talk should be conversational. Don't lecture. You are telling the prospect about what is offered, and how it concerns him. You are answering his questions, meeting his objections, and getting him to express an opinion now and then, a favorable one if possible. You should understand that the main object of this part of the process of the sale is to convince the prospect of the merits of your proposition as related to his interests.

During the demonstration you should avoid the expression of the idea that you are trying to induce the prospect to buy anything. His thought in regard to buying may be opposed to your purpose, and certainly nothing is to be gained at this time by calling attention to what may be an obstructing idea.

Argument and Assertion.

We all like to be convincing. *Help your prospect to convince himself.* Cause him to think along lines

that are favorable to the purchase. The conclusions that he will reach will have more weight with him if they appear to come, not from what you tell him, but from his own thinking. When you use argument, use it for demonstration only. Recognize the difference between showing the prospect what is right, and convincing him that he is wrong. In this way you may avoid arousing in him the feeling of opposition that often comes from argument.

Both argument and assertion should be used, but in different proportions with different prospects. With a majority of prospects, do not place too much dependence upon argument. Generally you have the advantage of your prospect. You can, if you choose, overwhelm him with argument; but if you do, you may induce in him a sense of defeat, perhaps of antagonism—both mental attitudes that are not conducive to a purchase. A good, strong assertion repeated in various ways may often be more effective than an equally strong argument. Many of our opinions are the product of ideas to which our attention has repeatedly been called. Peter Finley Dunne, recognizing the psychological principle of repetition, makes Mr. Dooley say: "Oi'll belave annything at all at all av you'll only tell it to me often enough."

Under right conditions, much use should be made of what we may call the principle of corroboration. If, for example, you are offering dress goods, as you call attention to the fineness of the texture, have the prospect hold the goods up to the light so that she can see that what you say is true; if you are offering an over-size tire, have a regular size at hand with which to compare. Corroboration should be used

not necessarily to overcome distrust, but to enable the prospect to convince himself.

It is not necessarily what is said in a selling talk that produces the desired result, but what impresses. Do your best to make your strong points produce their right impression. Up to a certain degree, there is a cumulative effect in repetition. Come back to your strong points, if need be; demonstrate again, give reasons, assert, suggest in regard to them, until, if they do not have their proper effect, the cause of failure will not rest with you. You should remember, however, that truth too persistently urged may become obnoxious. Good judgment sets a proper limit to even the best of our activities.

Treatment of Selling Points.

In your full demonstration, begin with a strong point to arouse interest, and end with a point that makes a suitable climax. Save a point or two to throw in in the final summing up.

Concentrate on points as you come to them, and treat them as thoroughly as you think they deserve. Your concentration will help secure to you the undivided attention of your prospect, and will thus give you favorable opportunity to impress your points. Do not take up a point, make a statement or two about it, drop it, and then after awhile add something to what you have already said in regard to it. That is unsystematic. It interferes with the unity of your demonstration, and if many points are so dealt with the result will be weak and confusing. Handle your points convincingly; then leave them,

and unless there is special reason, do not refer to them again until the summing up to induce decision.

Securing Admissions.

The demonstration forms the basis of your work when it comes to inducing decision. A valuable part of this basis consists of the admissions you have secured from your prospect that certain points made by you are true and important. You should secure these admissions as you go along. When you are about to leave the demonstration of a strong point, ask your prospect some question in regard to it in such a way that he can hardly fail to answer in the affirmative; or instead make some statement to which he will probably give his assent. "You see that all right, don't you?" "You understand the advantage of that, I imagine." "It would be hard to improve on that, wouldn't it?" "Well, here's another good feature." If you cannot secure an admission, that may show the need of further demonstration. "You don't quite see that, do you? Well, that's an important point; we'll go over it again." ....."All clear now?"

As you sum up to induce decision, the recalling of these admissions makes it difficult for the prospect to decide against you. "You remember that you saw the advantage of ..... Here's an advantage connected with that. These things save time, they save work, the machine pays for itself and is an investment that gives you returns right from the start."

Mention of Competition.

Your judgment must dictate whether you should mention competition during your demonstration. If

you decide that it is advisable to do so, be especially careful to do no injustice to competitors or to competing goods or propositions. It is often true that competition may be better handled when suggested by the prospect than when introduced by the salesman. If you mention competition first, it will usually be well for you to have some commendation precede any adverse criticism. Whatever the circumstances, keep in mind the fact that any unfairness to competitors may cause your prospect to lose confidence in you, and may suggest to him that it will be well to investigate before making a purchase.

Competition naturally holds a large place in the mind of a salesman, and, for that reason, is likely to receive too much of his attention. Do not cause your prospect to fix his attention on the goods of your competitor. To do so may arouse his interest in them. Get him to concentrate on your goods. If it seems advisable, compare with competing goods, not to show their defects, but to make the advantages of your goods stand out the more clearly.

If you bring up the subject of competition, it will often be well to do so in a general way. "Here's an advantage that this machine has over others. They do not have this feature, and you can see that it is important." "Some machines do this part of the work in this way. They..... The trouble with that way of doing is that....." Such reference to competing goods may serve to show that you have so much confidence in what you are offering that you have no fear of competition.

If the prospect mentions competing goods, it may sometimes be advisable to divert his attention to what

you have to offer. "The machine that you mention is a good one, but this is better. For example, right here. This feature that we have been talking about is exclusive. No other machine has it. Then here's another point to which I want to call your attention."

Needless Demonstration.

Occasionally you will meet a prospect who likes to make a quick decision. He may be satisfied with what is offered, and may want to save time by immediate acceptance. In such a case, further demonstration is evidently unnecessary, and may be harmful. Once in a while a prospect may wish to impress you with his business sagacity by pointing out the desirable features of what you offer. It may please him to show that he is well informed in regard to what is under consideration, or to display his ability to grasp points quickly. Permit him to do as he wishes. Sales made under such conditions will probably be satisfactory to all concerned, and should not be delayed by demonstration.

Inducing Decision.

If your demonstration has been successful, if you have succeeded in developing interest and producing the two phases of conviction, you have at the same time aroused in your prospect a desire for what you offer. As he has become convinced that what you offer would be to his benefit, his desire to possess it has naturally followed. This desire may have resulted in a resolve to buy, although the resolve has not been put into words. If so, you should at once induce final action. Frequently, however, an inter-

mediate step is necessary. This step is the inducing of decision.

Atkinson defines decision as an "act of the will settling the dispute between the warring faculties, ideas, desires, and fears." Decision should come as the result of reason, but often it does come as the result of feeling. Hence it is that the salesman cannot always rely upon the mere statement of facts, but must often appeal to the feelings, and make use of repetition to produce a cumulative effect. Whether decision comes from reason or from feeling, "the strongest motive at the moment wins the choice." Under proper conditions, the business of the salesman is to make the motive to buy stronger than the motive not to buy.

Your prospect, nearly convinced, is still undecided. His desire to possess is not strong enough to serve as a motive of action. In this state of indecision, he wants to accept your offer, and yet he does not want to accept it because of what would be required of him in return. Under such conditions, you should direct your efforts toward causing his desire to accept to become stronger than his desire not to accept, toward strengthening the desire to buy until it overcomes its opposite, and results in a favorable decision. To do this, no new processes are necessary. By means of demonstration you have brought the desire to accept up to the point where it is; you must lead it farther by the same means, but by a somewhat different use of them. Keep in mind that your present purpose is to induce decision by increasing desire. Increase desire by a brief, forceful summing up. Bring your strong points to bear on one or both of

two things, the production of the agreeable, or the avoidance of the disagreeable. Get your prospect to picture himself enjoying what you offer. Build up the desired motive by means of assertion, suggestion, evidence, and proof. Renew your appeal to the fundamental instincts; restate your points in close, logical order; state some of them in a new way. A new statement of a fact interests by its novelty, and may convince because it seems to corroborate what has been said before. Introduce the points that you have held in reserve; allow a little freer play to your enthusiasm than you did in the demonstration, and do most of the talking yourself. Emphasize the points in which your prospect has been especially interested, and make good use of the admissions that he has made. Such a summing up, or any part of it, may lead to what is known as "the psychological moment."

The Psychological Moment.

There is a lack of agreement as to when the psychological moment occurs. Is it the moment when the salesman should begin his summing up to induce decision? Is it the moment when the salesman should attempt to induce such action by the prospect as will constitute a legal acceptance of what is offered? There are, in fact, several psychological moments that occur during the process of the sale. Any moment when the salesman should stop one line of activity and take up another is a psychological moment upon which his success or failure may depend. *The* psychological moment, however, is the most critical of these moments, the instant when it is easiest for the

salesman to induce favorable action. This may be when the prospect is just ready to decide to accept the offer, or it may be immediately after he has decided to do so. In the first of these instants, a skillful attempt to induce action may furnish the impetus that will cause the prospect definitely to decide, and immediately to act; in the second, the attempt to induce action may cause the decision to be immediately acted upon, while a delay after this instant may give the prospect time in which he will change his mind.

We may conclude, therefore, that the psychological moment is the instant when it is easiest for the salesman to induce favorable action; and that it includes two possible instants as related to the prospect—the instant of readiness for favorable decision, and the instant immediately following such decision. To insist that the psychological moment excludes either of these instants is to attempt to make a distinction which, even if true, would be of no practical value.

The psychological moment may occur at any point in the selling talk, but it is usually to be expected at or near the close of the demonstration, or of the summing up. Some salesmen, through natural skill in the interpretation of mental changes, seem to recognize it intuitively; others have to acquire this ability through experience.

Inducing Action.

Psychologically the sale is completed at the instant when the prospect decides to accept what the salesman offers. The act of accepting, the verbal accept-

ance, and the placing of the signature are merely different ways of indicating that the decision has been made. The salesman, however, cannot rest content with a psychological sale. That kind of sale may be unmade the moment after it is made. When the prospect thinks, "I will accept," that makes the sale; but if he then thinks, "I will not accept," that unmakes it. The work of the salesman is not done until the decision to buy is made sufficiently manifest to be legally binding upon the buyer. Inducing action is a vital part of the salesman's activity.

This phase of the selling process should be entered upon with a confidence that is based upon what has been previously done. If your work has been thorough, you have assisted your prospect to understand your proposition; if the circumstances are such that he should accept your offer, he realizes that to do so would be a benefit to him; you have answered his objections, and stimulated his desire; he is ready to act, and the action that you are to suggest is nothing more than the logical outcome of preceding conditions. Confidently suggest the action, not as though asking a favor of the prospect, but as though expecting him to act in accord with his own interests.

When the time has come to induce action, hesitation is dangerous. The mind of the prospect is ready to act, and if it does not do so, it soon loses interest in the subject, and its attention is otherwise engaged. At this time there should be no more selling talk. It is not needed, and it might result in the loss of favorable opportunity.

It is your place to take the initiative. Do not expect the prospect to ask you for the order blank.

When the proper time comes, fill out the blank, "Style 16 is certainly best for your business, Mr. X." Hand him the blank, or place it before him, offer your pen at the "suggestive slant" with "Sign here, please," and indicate the place of signature. Various substitutes for "Style 16" will readily suggest themselves. "How will you have this shipped, Mr. X, freight or express?" "What terms do you prefer on this, Mr. X?" Do not put your question in a way that will suggest a negative answer. Make an affirmative answer natural and easy so that it will be in the line of least resistance.

Do not slight your demonstration in your haste to induce action. *Convince your prospect before you attempt to get him to act on his conviction.* See to it that the evidence is in before you ask judgment. Arouse and strengthen desire before making an appeal to it as a motive of action. Do not, however, fail to make right use of the psychological moment. To keep on with the selling talk after that moment has passed will have the effect of anti-climax, and will thus decrease the force of what has preceded. To argue after you have won may seem like an attempt to bolster up a weak case, and so cause doubt in the mind of the prospect.

After the Sale.

Frequently in the case of a specialty sale, and occasionally in sales of other kinds, you should give directions as to the care of the goods. Such directions, given after the transaction is complete, show that you are interested not merely in the sale, but also in your customer. They will serve to relate him

yet more closely to the goods, to increase his appreciation of them, to strengthen his decision in regard to them, to cause him to feel that he has made a satisfactory bargain, and thus to increase his good will toward you.

If your work has been well done, your attitude has been that of one who is acting in cooperation with another. When the sale is complete, your attitude should be in harmony with your previous actions. Do not allow any undue exultation to appear. Look upon the result as what was to be expected, and as something which is of mutual benefit. Thank your customer in a business-like may, but not as though you had received a special favor. Maintain his respect for you and his confidence in you.

After the sale is made there should be little or no reference to its subject matter except such as may be necessary in giving directions as to the care of goods. A general expression of the satisfaction that will be derived from the purchase may be appropriate, but there should be nothing that might be construed as more selling talk.

Unless you are sure of your customer, the time immediately following a sale is not a suitable one for prolonged conversation. Such conversation might give him time in which he would change his mind. Without apparent haste, courteously take your leave as soon as your work is done.

If your work is complex, review each sale to determine, if may be, what means were most effective,

No Sale.

In case of no sale, do not permit yourself to express displeasure; keep most of your disappointment under cover, and begin at once to prepare for future trade. When your offer is refused in a way that you know is final as far as the present is concerned, something like the following may help you to meet the situation gracefully: "Well, Mr. X, of course, I regret that you are not ready for this, but I thank you for the opportunity of showing the machine. I shall hope to call again some time. Good-day." If Mr. X appears to be in no hurry, it may be advisable to inquire of him in regard to acquaintances who may be prospects of yours, or to enter into general conversation if you think that by doing so you may prepare the way for future business.

Failure to make a sale may be to you a source of advantage. If the conditions are such that you think you ought to have made a sale, you should, as soon as you have favorable opportunity, go over by yourself the entire course of your attempt to sell, and discover, if possible, where you were at fault. To recognize a fault in oneself is the first step toward its correction. *Profit by the instruction that is offered by your errors.* If you make the same mistake twice, you increase your inefficiency.

Notes on Demonstrations.

The following notes on demonstrations will be helpful to pupil and instructor.

As we have studied general procedure in selling, and have closely followed the outline of the sale as applied to specialties, we are now in position to profit

by demonstrations. The following suggestions are offered.

If convenient, arrangements should be made to have one or two salesmen demonstrate before the class. These demonstrations may well come after the study of the illustrative sales, the first of which begins on page 155.

Pupils should be selected for further demonstrations, some being assigned to act as salesmen, and others as prospects. To a considerable degree, the preference of the pupils may well serve as a guide in making assignments. Pupils may indicate first and second choices on slips of paper, and from these satisfactory assignments can usually be made. In large classes where not all may have opportunity to take part in a demonstration, some may be assigned to write up sales with the details of which they are acquainted, or to write imaginary transactions.

Provision should be made for various kinds of demonstrations, but, as far as possible, those who are to act as salesmen should be permitted to choose what they want to sell. In the selection of subjects, attention should be given to their probabilities in selling points and objections. Good subjects are strong in both. Anything to which but slight objection can be offered is not good for demonstration purposes as it does not give opportunity for either buyer or seller to show his skill. Suitability for presentation before the class should also be considered. Sellers should see that their selections are acceptable to the teacher. Properly handled, the following subjects will be satisfactory. The list may readily be enlarged.

Automobile
Camera
Canoe
Cash Register
Dictaphone
Dining Room Suite
Dress Goods
Farm Tractor
Gas Stove
Gun
House and Lot
Life Insurance
Millinery
Motor Truck
Patent Right
Protectograph
Refrigerator
Right of Manufacture
Rocking Chair
School Furniture
Set of Dishes
Shirtwaist
Suit by Merchant Tailor
Talking Machine
Typewriter
Umbrella
Vacuum Cleaner
Washing Machine.

Demonstrations, as here considered, are dramatic representations. Those who take part in them should have in mind that their work is for the benefit of others as well as themselves, and should talk more loudly than would be necessary in business.

A demonstration requires from twenty to thirty minutes, and preparation for it should be thorough. Buyer and seller should become familiar with both selling points and objections. Each should think them out for himself as far as possible, and determine how they should be handled; then he should obtain outside assistance. Business men will readily give information. Buyers should review the main points in the theory of buying, and should prepare themselves to put reasonable obstructions in the way of sales. During the demonstration, however, they should not obstinately refuse to accept good answers to objections. Sellers should prepare their talks in accordance with the outline of sale, and should make good use of the theory of selling. A demonstration should not result in a sale unless the selling talk is strong enough to produce conviction in the usual course of trade. The illustrative transactions beginning on page 155 give an idea what is required.

Practice of demonstration previous to appearance before the class may or may not be desirable. That depends upon those who are to take part. With or without practice, the thing to do is to make the demonstration natural. If there is to be no practice, buyer and seller should know whether they are to meet as acquaintances, friends, or strangers, and should have an understanding as to general plan.

Just before the demonstration, buyer or seller should inform the class in regard to the conditions under which the demonstration is to be made.

Each demonstration should be followed by constructive criticism by pupils and instructor. Notes

taken during the demonstration will add interest and value to this part of the exercise.

Pupils should be duly credited for their work in demonstrations and in written descriptions. A fair allowance is perhaps three times that which is made for a recitation.

In the following illustrative transactions, use is made of many of the selling principles that have been discussed. The transactions should be analyzed in a way that will bring out the reasons for what is said and done.

A Retail Sale.

When I went down town I had no idea of buying anything, but intended just to look at goods for a spring suit.

As I was about to enter the store my attention was attracted to the window display. The windows were prettily decorated with flowered crêpe paper, art denim screens, and here and there a real palm. There was no clash of colors in the decorations, or in the goods displayed, and there was no appearance of things being crowded.

Of course, I was most interested in the section where spring suits were shown. Here there were two very stylishly dressed figures, some skirts artistically draped on pedestals, and a few shirtwaists. Two hats, a little extreme in style it may be, were not without their share of interest.

As I went into the store I was conscious of a pleasing general effect. The light was good, there was plenty of room, and the goods were attractively arranged.

On approaching the silk counter, I saw that my clerk was busy. She gave me a pleasant look of recognition, and allowed me to take care of myself for awhile. This was not at all hard to do as some of the latest silks were so placed that I could readily examine them.

When Miss B had finished with her customer, she came toward me with a slight smile, called me by name, and waited for me to say what I wanted to look at. When I said that I was somewhat interested in goods for a spring suit, she laid out a number of pieces of silk, about a half dozen, I should think. I could tell by the way she handled some of the pieces that they appealed to her especially. Naturally, that interested me in them also.

"Now," she said, "these are all new goods. This," picking up a piece of blue taffeta, "is especially fine."

I replied that I did not like the color very well, and that I should prefer a softer material.

"Have you any special color in mind?" she asked.

"Yes; some shade of green, perhaps."

"Well, I believe that here is just what you want. This is not too dark for the season, and the material is very soft and pliable. It is a satin taffeta, and it is guaranteed to wear well."

"Will the color hold, or will the sun fade it?"

"No, this won't fade. It is one of the few pieces whose color we can guarantee. Now here is a piece that is fifty cents a yard cheaper, and looks almost as good. However, it is not quite so wide, isn't so heavy, and the color is not guaranteed."

"What is the price of this first piece?"

"It is a dollar fifty-nine now, but we shall have

to charge a dollar seventy-five for the next piece, if we can get any more of it. There," she said, holding it so as to show it to good effect, "now let's see," draping it over my shoulder, "why that just suits your complexion. With just a touch of this white moiré as piping, and around the cuffs and collar, wouldn't that be beautiful? Now wouldn't you like to look at this Georgette crêpe to go with it as a waist? Here is the white, or, if you prefer the flesh color, we have that too."

"I had not thought of getting a waist now, but I might look at the goods. That white is very pretty."

"Yes, it is; and perhaps it would be better for you than the other, as you could wear it with anything. This waist, and the suit with white trimming, and a hat to match would make a stunning outfit."

"How much would it take to make a suit, do you think?"

"Well," said she, after a pause, "I don't believe that it would take more than nine yards. The waist would take two yards. That material is forty inches wide, and comes at two dollars."

After thinking it over a little I said that it seemed foolish to get the more expensive goods when the other looked just as well and was so much cheaper.

"Well," she replied, "I'll tell you. This piece at a dollar fifty-nine is a fine piece of goods. It is guaranteed to wear well, and to hold its color. It is just the shade of green that you want, and it is the best piece of silk of the kind that I have for the price. Now as to this other piece. "It's pretty good, but cheap goods are always something of a risk, don't you think?"

"Yes, that's true," I said.

"Then, too, Miss J, there is no guaranty. If it proves unsatisfactory, we cannot give you anything on it, while if this does not turn out well, we will make it good."

"Yes, I see. I think that you are right."

Taking up the goods, she said, "Nine yards, wasn't it?"

"Yes," I replied, "if you are sure that that will be enough."

"And the waist to go with it?"

"Yes, I think that I may as well take that, too."

After the trimming was selected, she inquired, "Would you like to have the package delivered?"

"If you please."

"Your number is ——?"

"624 Maple Avenue."

As the saleslady was doing up the goods, she said that she thought that I had made a good purchase, and gave me some suggestions as to how the suit should be made. She always treats me pleasantly, and I can rely upon her judgment in regard to what is suitable for me. I like to trade with her whenever I find it possible.

A Sale on the Road.

"Is this Mr. X?"

"Yes, sir."

"My name is Y. I am representing the U. T. D. System of Troy, N. Y. Perhaps you have seen it advertised."

"N-no, never heard of it."

"I thought that possibly you might have noticed our ads in the ————."

"Well, now that you mention it, I believe I have."

"Our company makes suits that sell for fifteen and twenty-two fifty."

"Fifteen and twenty-two fifty."

"Yes, sir. We specialize on those. For that reason we can give you better values than houses can that do not specialize."

"It seems to me that fifteen is a rather low price."

"The price is low, but the value isn't. Our fifteen dollar suits are equal to those that usually sell for from eighteen to twenty dollars, and our twenty-two fifty suits rank with those that sell for twenty-seven."

"Well, a good many of my young customers would rather pay twenty-five dollars for a suit than twenty-two fifty."

"We're going to help out with local advertising. I should be glad to have you look at our lines."

"Why—yes, I might. Haven't much time, though. I've got to go to ———— about one."

"Just a moment. I'll get my models. Now this is strictly a young men's model, skeleton lined. We can furnish this in either one or two button sack. This is fifteen dollars. It would come to you at ten fifty. You see what the workmanship is. Every seam in every one of our suits is sewed with silk thread."

"How about your twenty-two fifty suits?"

"Right here's a model. Fourteen fifty to you. This year we are cutting the vest a trifle higher. All our suits have mohair linings. Here's a double breasted flannel in the blue. Double breasted, you know, makes a hit with some of the fellows."

"We don't have many calls for double breasted suits nowadays."

"That's strange. In New York and Chicago they are selling quite extensively, especially in the flannels."

"Seems to me that the flannels require too much pressing."

"Lots of men don't mind if things aren't pressed. This blue flannel always looks neat."

"Wrinkles a little. My customers don't want to be pressing all the time. What else have you? Any other colors?"

"Oh, yes. Here's a pinch back in the Scotch mixture. This number right here; and I have an excellent blue serge."

"Blue serge."

"Three button sack. Has patch pockets. The Scotch mixture with pinch back two-piece suit. The flannels come in the brown and the gray also." (Shows samples.)

"Seems to me rather loosely woven for that kind."

"Many people like that for summer use; and the material is so good that there is no doubt of its wearing well. I can give you that in the skeleton lined, or just as you like. Another thing as you're going through, you will see that the pockets are strongly reinforced. Just notice, too, that we make everything absolutely of wool."

"What models have you in the gray flannel?"

"Conservative models, three button sacks with patch pockets; all three-piece suits. This gray makes a neat model for older gentlemen. Also the brown. Scotch mixture is a young men's model. Here's a

new model, the ——— plaid. We're making quite a feature of this."

"I don't go much on low priced suits. You see we're right here on the main street, and we do business with a pretty good class of customers. I ——"

"That's the very reason why you should stock with our lines. Lots of people pass here to whom you're not making much of any appeal. You're doing a good business, but don't you think that you would do still more by attracting more people? You will find that you will get people who have never been in your store."

"I'm carrying some cheap lines now; but they don't go very well."

"Some of those lines have been advertised a good deal, been on the market a long time, and have gone bad. The name has been kept up, but not the quality. We don't believe in that sort of business. We're going to keep up both. One sale of our goods will make another. Our lines will be good advertising from first to last."

"Sounds good. What about your other advertising?"

"Well, in the first place, we have an expert advertising manager, and good men working under his direction. We run page ads in the leading magazines. We intend to follow up our goods. We consider bill-boarding excellent, and will bill-board this city. In addition to that, we will buy space on the sides of buildings."

"Window cards?"

"Yes, sir; and good ones. Style books, too, gotten out in fine shape."

"Labels on the coats?"

"Your own label on the coats. No extra expense. We will also put an engraved plate over the door with your name on it if you wish."

"Do you make suits to order?"

"Yes, sir; and we give prompt service. Today's Tuesday. Suppose that you had sent in an order this morning, you would have the suit Saturday afternoon."

"On the whole, I like your material fairly well."

"I am sure that you will find it very satisfactory. Our special inducement is quality. Now what do you think about this gray flannel? It's a snappy model for the young fellows. Pinch back, or without, just as you like."

"Who's in your company?"

"There's Mr. A and Mr. G of Rochester. Of course, you've heard of them. Then there's W of New York City."

"Large plant?"

"We have a plant covering five acres of ground, absolutely modern in every way. Best lighted factory in Troy. Large recreation grounds for employees, gymnasium, lunch counters,—by the way, any time you're down that way, I should like to have you come in and take a look around. And another thing, we have a head cutter from S. & Co.'s; so we have the same expert workmanship that is contained in the high priced lines."

"Financial standing."

"Bradstreet, or R. G. Dun & Co. Capital, $500,000."

"What can you do for terms?"

"On a fairly big order, we can give you 7½%, 10 days, or 5%, 30 days."

"I can do business with established companies at the rates that you offer."

"We'll pay the freight on the first four bills."

"You're a new concern; never on the market before."

"If you want to find out about us, wire The Blank Company of New York, or T. J. & Company of Chicago. You can see for yourself, Mr. X. If you were starting in business, could you offer much better terms than your competitors do?"

"Oh, that's different."

"When you take into consideration the quality of ——"

"All I can judge from is your models. I can hardly ——"

"We'll give you a guaranty that our clothing will be as good as the models. As I stated before, you can call up some big firms, and see what they think of us."

"Do T. J. & Company handle your goods?"

"They surely do. Sold them a good bill not two weeks ago."

"Your material seems good, and you are showing some good styles."

"Good from start to finish. If our merchandise does not come up to the models I have shown you, fire it back at us at our loss, not yours."

"About the goods if they don't sell."

"They'll sell. No trouble about that. If they don't sell, you can return them to us. We'll take

the risk. All over the United States, not one suit has been returned."

"I should want the exclusive handling of the goods."

"That would be quite a concession in a city of this size, Mr. X."

"Suppose I give you a pretty good order for a starter, say six or seven hundred dollars?"

"That would do very well. Now about these blue flannels."

"I don't know that I want any of the fifteen dollar. Let's see. They come at ten fifty. I might try a quarter dozen."

"About a thirty-three, and thirty-four, and ——"

"Thirty-six."

"The twenty-two fifties?"

"Same."

"Thirty-three, thirty-four, and thirty-six. Try out some of the double breasted?"

"Oh, a few. Three maybe, thirty-five, thirty-six, and thirty-nine."

"All right. How many of these grays can you use?"

"I hardly know."

"Make it two dozen. Gray flannel, both in pinch back and conservative cut, sizes thirty-three to forty. How about the medium cut? That will sell every time."

"Give me a seven and a nine. I better have two, one in the slim ——"

"Yes, you'll need some slims because there are a few Abe Lincolns left yet, and they have got to have clothes. How about the stout?"

"They go pretty well. Two forty-fours, and two forty-sixes conservative."

"Gray is something like coffee. People once use it, and can't get away from it."

"Very like indeed. What comes next?"

"Scotch mixture. We can give you that in one button, and pinch back. Both prices. Thirty-three, don't you think? Thirty-three, five and six; and this in the pinch back."

"I better have more of them in the fifteen. Five, seven, and nine, make it. In regard to this black, I don't think I'd have any calls for that. The blue serge."

"Here's the blue serge. Dozens of youngsters will like that, and some men won't wear anything else."

"For the young fellows. Older business men want something a little better."

"This serge we put on the market for business men. You'll find there are lots of business men who will like that kind of a suit."

"I guess I'll take a few of them. Make it thirty-eight, thirty-nine, and forty-five. I have a forty-four and a thirty-six."

"Yes, sir. There's the ———— plaid."

"That looks as though it ought to go. I'll take a few of those. Four, five and seven, conservative."

"Four, five and seven. There are a good many calls for plaid in pinch back. You will want about a medium size, five, six, and eight. You think it advisable to try a fifteen line of that?"

"Let's see. That will make six. Make it five and seven."

"I am pleased to have you try those. That fifteen

dollars will look like a fortune to some youngsters. Here's something in green. A freak, of course; but that will make a hit with some."

"Don't want those."

"Well, I think you're right. Try some of them later, perhaps."

"That seems to be about all. How does it figure up?"

"We'll see. Ten at ten fifty is one hundred five, and forty at fourteen fifty is five hundred eighty. That makes a total of six hundred eighty-five. I think you're a little short on blue serge. All that we have here is the fifteens. You ought to have at least three of the twenty-two fifties, say thirty-six, thirty-eight, and forty. That comes to seven hundred, twenty-eight fifty. How will that do?"

"That's good. Do you send out circulars to my customers?"

"Yes, sir. You have a mailing list, I suppose?"

"Yes, we'll furnish you with that."

"First shipment will be here in about six weeks. Ad men some days before that. Just sign here, Mr. X. ————. Isn't it peculiar? Every business man has a characteristic signature. Takes a reading glass to make some of them out, too. By the way, I understand that you are going over to ————. I'm going there this afternoon in my machine, and I shall be pleased if you can make arrangements to go with me."

"Thank you, I will. Very glad to do so."

"Can we meet at the ———— at one-thirty?"

"Yes, sir. I'll be there. Good-bye."

"Good-bye. Till later."

Sales on the Road.

The traveling salesman employed by a wholesale house does his work under conditions similar to those under which the more difficult of specialty sales are usually made Therefore, the general principles of selling, and most of those noted under specialty sales, must be borne in mind as being fully applicable to sales on the road.

After the first trip through his territory, the traveling man, if he has done his work well, has more favorable conditions of pre-approach and approach than are usual to the salesman who sells a specialty to people with whom he is unacquainted. The commercial traveler has the advantage of acquaintance, perhaps of friendship, of an increasing knowledge of the kind of men with whom he has to deal, and of their business interests. Naturally these advantages tend to lighten the work of making sales.

Personality of the Commercial Traveler.

In these days of close competition, of increased publicity, and of quick and easy means of communication, there is much less difference in the quality and price of competing goods than formerly. For this reason sales now are less dependent upon quality and price than heretofore, and more dependent upon the personality of the salesman. So much depends upon what sort of man the traveling salesman really is that his personality becomes a subject of special interest. The sincere, courteous, friendly, well informed traveling man prepares his own welcome, and opens the way to his own success. Those with whom he deals soon learn that they need not be on the

defensive against him, that his interests and theirs are not opposed, that to lay aside other matters and talk with him will be agreeable, and that what he has to offer is probably of mutual concern. The man who can create that kind of attitude toward himself, who believes in himself, who is energetic, adaptable, industrious, and persistent, and who has the sense and ability to keep himself in good condition physically and mentally, is the kind of man who, if he chooses, will succeed in selling goods on the road.

Cultivate the ability to secure orders through friendship. The continuance of trade often depends upon the friendship that grows out of the business relations between yourself and your customers. Such friendship, however, rests not alone on trade in goods, but also on interests that are not directly connected with business. For this reason you should gradually enlarge your knowledge of the general interests of your customers. This will not only strengthen friendship, but may enable you to give better service than would otherwise be possible. Friendliness may and should increase with acquaintance.

Concerning the characteristic of friendliness, however, a word of caution may be needed. While it is an excellent trait in a traveling man, he should be somewhat guarded in its expression, at least until his trade is well established. Too much conversation with the clerks of the store, for illustration, might cause the proprietor to suspect the salesman's motives, and, on brief acquaintance, too great a show of friendship to the proprietor himself might have the same result.

Occasionally the beginning of trade depends upon common interests not connected with business. The

unusually difficult prospect may be approachable on the side of his hobby, and you may secure permanent trade by special preparation to make yourself interesting to the one with whom you hope to deal. A young man just employed was sent to sell goods to a prospect to whom it was considered impossible to sell in that way. While waiting for the prospect, the salesman noticed a large volume on the office desk, a history of the Aryan races. Knowing something about the subject, the salesman used the book for an hour to good advantage. When the prospect came in, the salesman said, "I see, Mr. X, that you are interested in the subject of the Aryan races." At the end of a long conversation, the prospect suddenly asked, "Who are you, anyway? and what are you here for?" "Oh, I'm D, with J. & Co., and I came in intending to sell you a bill of ————." "Hm!" said the prospect, "when I want goods, I send for them! But, —— well, what have you to offer?" The result was a satisfactory order. One drug salesman said to another, "I tried to sell some goods to B at ———— the other day, but the only thing he'd talk about was Boston terriers." The listener studied up on Boston terriers, called on B, talked terriers, and gained a regular customer.

Competition.

A part of your work as a commercial traveler will be that of inducing dealers to transfer their trade, or a portion of it, from some other house to yours. This is a matter that needs to be handled carefully. If the competing house is a good one, and if it has been suitably represented, it probably stands well in

the opinion of your prospect, and he may have a friendly feeling for its salesman. If so, any harsh criticism on your part will lead him to defend his ideas. Trade does not lie in that direction. Give your competitors due credit, and then show that you can do a little better than they can.

Varied Responsibilities.

As a traveling man, you are responsible to your house, to your customers, and to yourself.

Responsibility to your house requires that you work a proper amount of time, and that you make good use of your ability; that you do not misrepresent goods, or the terms on which they may be purchased; that you inform yourself concerning selling conditions, and, on occasion, make known to your firm any changes that may be of importance, and that might not otherwise come to its attention. In a word, you should make the interests of the firm your interests, and do business for it as you would for yourself.

To your customer, you owe skilled service. Cooperate with him toward ends that will be profitable to all concerned. Be helpful to him in selecting what he ought to buy. His interests, as well as those of your house, should be your interests also. Do not over-sell to the injury of his business. On the other hand, when well assured that selling conditions warrant such action, do not hesitate to urge larger orders than he is inclined to give. If you are in position to do so, be of use to your customer by suggesting means that will help him in the sale of his goods. You may, for illustration, be able to show him a better means

of display than he has been using, or to suggest improvements in some of his other ways of advertising. Before offering definite assistance in his business, however, be sure that your offer will not be looked upon as unwarranted interference.

The responsibility to yourself has been sufficiently discussed in that part of the book which is devoted to the subject of the development of personality.

Retail Sales.

In ordinary retail sales as compared with specialty sales, the range of the salesman's activity is considerably narrowed. The pre-approach, for example, treated definitely in the specialty sale, has here become almost wholly merged into the general preparation for selling, and the approach is shared by the prospect and the salesman. The different phases of the sale, too, are frequently of very brief duration. Often they are passed over so rapidly that they are difficult to distinguish. Attention, interest, conviction, decision, and the order for the goods may seem to come all at once. Analysis will show, however, that the outline of the specialty sale, with some of its features indistinct, it may be, can be definitely traced in the retail sale. A prospect having in mind the purchase of fruit, enters a grocery and buys a dozen oranges. The pre-approach of the salesman may be obscurely seen in the arrangement of the oranges, in the form of a pyramid, perhaps; the approach is found in the manner in which he comes toward the prospect and greets him; attention may be attracted by suggesting and pointing out oranges; interest may be awakened by some statement con-

cerning one kind or grade; conviction may be induced by placing an orange in the hand of the prospect, and asking him to note some of the distinctive features of the fruit, such as weight, or color, or the thinness of the skin, and by saying that this particular kind of orange is very sweet and juicy; decision may be brought about by the statement of the salesman that he has taken some of them home and found them fine; and the order may be secured by picking up a bag, and asking how many to send over. Even after the sale, the salesman may cultivate good will by showing the buyer some new way in which oranges may be served. On the contrary, a man who enters a drug store to buy a toothbrush may, on the way out, be attracted by a newspaper, pick up the paper, and put a nickel on the counter. In such a case, all the steps of the sale seem to be taken at once.

As in the case of sales on the road, the greater part of what has been said in regard to general procedure and to specialty sales applies with equal force to retail sales. There are, however, certain ideas, not dwelt upon elsewhere, that have here their particular application.

The Place of Business.

The place of business should be not merely a place in which to store and sell goods, but also a place that will be of great assistance in the process of making sales.

The importance of the location of a store, of its exterior appearance, and its interior arrangement, can hardly be over-emphasized. The store should be lo-

cated not only where it will be convenient for those with whom the merchant expects to deal, but also where they are in the habit of passing. Fifty feet in the wrong direction may mean failure. So careful are some firms in regard to this, that before locating they secure data as to the daily average number of people passing a proposed place of business. The outside of the store, and the environment in which the store is situated should be so attractive that they will do their full part in the advertising of goods. Such advertising is merely a part of the selling process. The walk in front of the store should be kept clear, clean, and in good material condition; the store windows should be large, of good quality, well kept, and constantly used in the tasteful and frequently varied display of goods. The inside of the store should be adapted to the systematic arrangement and effective display of goods, to the ease with which goods may be handled, and to their suitable care. It should be pleasant and convenient for customers. The extent to which this idea has been carried out in our leading stores is worthy of consideration. Such stores are well lighted, heated, and ventilated. They are furnished with convenient seats for customers and salespeople, with rest rooms, dining rooms, nurseries, telephone booths, places in which parcels may be checked, elevators, and moving stairways. The stores are artistically decorated, and music is provided for the entertainment of guests. All of these things make buying attractive, and thus assist in the selling of goods. Moreover, many of these features, pleasant and healthful, add to the

cheerfulness and energy of those who sell, and thus materially increase their efficiency.

Appearance and Attitude of Salespeople.

The general appearance and attitude of the salespeople have much to do with the attractiveness of the place of business. Salespeople should be in their proper places, and evidently able, ready, and willing to render the service for which they are employed. They should not assemble in groups for conversation, even when not engaged in their work. Such groups are likely to impress prospects unfavorably. They give an unbusiness-like air to the place. Salespeople who have time to assemble in such groups evidently have nothing of importance to do, and the prospect may feel that their apparent good time will be interrupted if one of them is asked to wait upon him. Idle salespeople should not stare at prospects, and should avoid any appearance of talking about them. Some prospects, in surroundings to which they are unaccustomed, are over-sensitive, and should be treated in a way to avoid possible irritation.

The Floor Manager.

In many of the larger retail stores, the quality of service is dependent, to a considerable extent, upon floor managers. In general, the duties of the floor manager are to direct prospects where to find what they are looking for, to see that there is no needless delay in waiting upon them, and to see that salespeople do their work in an efficient manner.

In relation to prospects, the floor manager holds a somewhat difficult position. He should be sufficiently attentive so that they will not feel that they are neg-

lected, and he should not offer his services so quickly or so insistently that he will seem to be officious. He should be a quick reader of human nature, and, as far as may be, should adapt his actions to the inclinations of prospects. If it is evident that a prospect knows where she wants to go, or with whom she wishes to deal, the assistance of the floor manager is not needed, and anything that looks like interference on his part may be resented. Speaking of the work of the floor manager, a lady said that she did not like to go to a certain store because as soon as she entered the door the floor manager jumped at her; another was very indignant because the floor manager followed her so closely that she thought that he suspected her of trying to steal something; and another objected to the attention of the floor manager when she wished merely to look at goods.

A courteous attitude of readiness to serve is often all that is required of a floor manager, and he should be on his guard against offering his assistance when it is not desired.

The Social Secretary.

In some large firms, the social secretary has an important place. She observes the saleswomen at their work, acquaints herself with their home conditions, sees that they are suitably dressed, in semi-uniform, perhaps, with some allowance for individual taste, and offers needed suggestions in regard to conduct.

The social secretary should be a woman of refinement and dignity. Her success depends upon her ability to win the respect of those in her charge, and

to gain their confidence so that they will come to her for advice in matters of importance.

It is probable that many firms who do not employ a social secretary might do so to advantage, especially if she were skilled in salesmanship, and to her work as secretary were added the duties of sales critic and instructor.

The Approach.

As a salesman you should walk toward the prospect in a way that will attract favorable attention. A genuine smile, not overdone, may be effective. A smile that is merely mechanical, and a vacuous grin should be avoided. Show that you are interested in your prospect, and make it easy for him to say in what way you can be of service. If possible, call him by name. If he is a customer of long standing, your friendly greeting naturally includes that; if he is a comparative stranger, to call him by name causes him to feel that he has impressed you favorably, and creates in him a receptive attitude. Some salesmen, by assuming a distant or superior air, seem to try to place the prospect at a disadvantage. This is a serious fault; it causes the prospect to be ill at ease, and makes selling difficult. Usually the prospect is at a disadvantage, and is more or less conscious of the fact. The salesman should try to make him feel this as little as possible.

To make it easy for a prospect to make known his wants an interested attitude is usually preferable to a question. In coming to the store, the prospect has taken the initiative. He probably knows what he wants, and may even have formulated the words in

which he intends to express his desire. Permit him to carry out his program. Moreover, he will accept your service more readily if he asks for it than he will if he feels that you are trying to force it upon him. Under some conditions, questions are useful. They should, however, be well chosen. Stereotyped forms, such as "Something?" "Yes, sir," and "What'll it be?" should be avoided. As you approach a prospect who is looking at goods when there is no salesman at hand, you may very properly inquire, "Is there anyone waiting on you, Sir?" "Can I be of assistance to you, Madam?" "Would you like to examine these gloves, Mrs. X?" or you may ask any well expressed question that seems definitely connected with the situation before you.

With rare exceptions, every one who enters the store should be treated as a customer, present, or prospective. Even the sight-seeing child, sometimes annoying, and much in the way, will, if kindly treated, naturally develop into the permanent customer. Moreover, if he sees something that especially takes his fancy, he will be quite likely to do some high grade advertising for the store when he reaches home.

Two Prospects at Once.

When you are waiting on a prospect, and another comes to be waited on, you have before you a situation that should be skillfully handled. To pay no attention to the second prospect may cause him to feel that he is slighted; in an extreme case, he may feel this to such an extent that he will leave the store before you are ready to wait on him, and will not

return. To pay too much attention to the second prospect will probably displease the first. So it is evident that attention should be carefully distributed. You should, at least, acknowledge the presence of the second prospect by a pleasant look, and, if possible, direct his attention to goods in which he may be interested. Say to him, for example, "Here are some new ties, Mr. X, that you may like to look at." Under some circumstances it may be well to excuse yourself to the first prospect, partially wait on the second, and then return to the first. The common practice of saying, "I'll be ready to wait on you in a moment," is not good, especially if the remark is heard by the first prospect. To him it gives the impression that you want him to hurry, or that you are particularly anxious to serve the other prospect. To avoid any appearance of favoritism under such conditions is usually the way in which the esteem of both prospects may be maintained.

Attention.

Transfer attention from yourself to your goods. Talk to your prospect in a tone that can be distinctly heard, but that is not loud enough to attract the attention of others. Set an example of attention by listening attentively to what your prospect says. Make it evident that you recognize and appreciate his point of view, and that you intend to do what you can to meet his requirements.

There is a general opinion that a salesman in calling attention to what he has to offer should never ask a question in a negative form. It certainly is not a good thing to ask such questions as, "You don't

want to buy an adding machine today, do you?'' ''I can't sell you a typewriter today, can I?'' It is no doubt true that a salesman should be careful in the use of negative questions. The reason is, of course, that negative questions suggest negative answers. In the usual retail trade, however, a negative question may often be effective in calling attention to goods after the customer has given an order, or in increasing the order that has been given. ''You don't want some maple syrup today, do you, Mrs. X? We have a few gallons of the best that we have been able to get for years.'' ''You wouldn't want a dozen cans of this corn, would you? We can make you a better price by the dozen.'' Such questions are like suggestions that seem to leave the initiative with the customer. They have no appearance of objectionable attempts at ''boosting,'' and, accompanied by reasons why customers might want the goods, they may even indicate a pleasing interest on the part of the salesman.

It may often happen when a prospect asks to see some article that you may be in doubt in regard to what grade to show. ''About what price, Mrs. X?'' may not end your uncertainty because Mrs. X may be fond of shopping; or, if the prospect is Mr. X, he may not know much about the price. Sometimes such a question may be of service. If so, show something a little better than the answer indicates. If your prospect is willing to pay twenty dollars for a suit of clothes, for example, he will probably pay twenty-five for a considerably better suit, and be well satisfied with the transaction. You should always be careful not to offer anything that is too low in grade

or price, as such an offer might offend a sensitive prospect. If in doubt in regard to the quality of goods to offer, be on the safe side by offering something a little better than you think the prospect will buy, not too good, however, as that might lessen the attractiveness of the article that you could sell under the circumstances. A lady went to a furniture store to buy a mahogany chiffonier. The salesman conducted her through long rows of fine chiffoniers, and then began showing some cheap imitations. The prospect remarked that there were better looking ones in the room that they had just come through. "Oh, yes," replied the salesman, "but they are real mahogany." When you decide what grade to offer, show only a few samples of that grade. You will thus make it easier for your prospect to select what he wants than if you placed many kinds before him at once. If it appears, however, that the prospect wishes to see a greater variety, do not hesitate to meet his wish. Evident reluctance in showing goods puts the prospect in the position of one who is receiving a favor that is not readily offered, irritates him, and reduces the chances of making a sale. An attractive looking saleslady in a large jewelry store was asked to show knives and forks. She laid three kinds on the counter. The prospect asked to see other kinds. With a toss of her head the saleslady handed out another sample or two. Failing to realize that a part of her business was to gain the good will of customers through courteous service, she retained her position but a short time.

Under suitable conditions, let the prospect select what he wants to examine. We all like to follow our

own inclinations, and as a part of the business of the salesman is to cultivate the good will of his customers, he should be guided, as far as practicable, by the wishes of those whom he serves.

After you have made a sale you may wish to call attention to other goods. In so doing, avoid questions that are merely general, that lead everywhere and nowhere. "What else?" and "Anything more that I can do for you?" belong to that class. Such questions scatter the attention of the prospect, and that result is just what you do not want. Ask questions that are related to something definite, that tend to call out a desired answer. In the same class as the questions preceding, but perhaps even worse than they is the one that often follows a sale, "Will that be all today?" This not only suggests the idea that that will be all, but also indicates that the salesman is well satisfied with what he has done, and that perhaps he is anxious to wait on someone else. Instead of making use of such a question, try to interest your customer in goods that are suggested by what he has already purchased. If he has bought shoes, for example, it will often be well to try to interest him in suitable rubbers to go with them. After an order has been taken, and you wish to call attention to other goods, some form of address like the following may be helpful: "We have just received a new line of silks, Mrs. X, in which I believe that you would be interested. If you have time, I should like to show them to you." "We are making a very low price on remnants today, Mrs. X. Possibly you could use some of them." "They are having a special sale in the linen department this week. Perhaps you

might be interested." Statements like these seem to arise not so much from a desire to sell as to be of service to the customer. For this reason, they may serve the double purpose of increasing trade and good will. They are, moreover, good advertising, as Mrs. X will probably consider them bits of news that will be of interest to her friends.

Interest.

Appeal to the senses—to hearing by talking, to sight by showing the goods, to touch by getting the prospect to handle the goods, and to the other senses according to circumstances. It is usually well to appeal to more than one of the senses, as some people are most easily impressed through one, and some through another. Appeal to the imagination by showing the prospect how the goods will look in use, and by suggesting the pleasure and comfort that will come from their possession. If a tool is called for, put it in the prospect's hand so that he can get the "feel" of it, so that he can easily imagine himself making use of it; if you are demonstrating a machine, get the prospect to operate it, if that is feasible. Such means not only cause the prospect to feel that his judgment is appreciated, but also increase his interest by arousing in him a sense of ownership.

A good salesman often stimulates interest by the way in which he handles his goods. He doesn't throw them on the counter in a perfunctory way with a careless "take-or-leave" attitude, but as he hands them out for inspection, he looks at them with evident approval, and lays them down in a way that indicates his appreciation. Such actions may have

more selling force than the salesman's approval expressed in words. An attitude of high appreciation of the goods that you offer for sale should become habitual.

If you find that you cannot make a sale, and the matter is of sufficient importance, it may be well to turn the prospect over to someone else. "Excuse me a moment, Mrs. X, and I'll call Mr. Z. He's the manager, and it may be that he will think of something that will suit you." That may renew the interest of the prospect, and she will be likely to feel that she is receiving the best service that the store has to offer. Care must be taken, however, in your manner of expression. "Here, Mr. Z, will you see if you can find something that will please this lady?" might not have the desired effect.

Conviction.

The principle of contrast may sometimes be used to advantage to develop interest and produce conviction. Show how your machine, for example, is superior to the one in use, or how one piece of goods is better than another, or make use of the principle by placing the big, red strawberries alongside of the small, half-ripe ones. Again, if the prospect is nearly convinced that it is to his interest to buy a good article that he is considering, a doubtful suggestion of a much inferior article may have the effect of helping him to make up his mind in favor of the one that you want him to buy. A prospect getting ready to go camping was looking at camp axes. A cheap one and an expensive one were before him. It was evident that he wanted the better one, but that he

was hesitating about paying the price. The salesman picked up the cheap axe and said with a noticeable lack of enthusiasm, "Well, this is a pretty good axe." That caused immediate decision in favor of the expensive one, the axe that the salesman wished the prospect to buy.

In trying to produce conviction, you should be ready with advice when it is asked for. You should, however, understand that your advice as a salesman may not always be acceptable. When it is opposed to the expressed preference of the prospect, or seems to him to be officiously offered, it will be likely to stand in the way of a sale. Frequently, moreover, it may carry with it too great a degree of responsibility. A lady who asked for yellow crêpe de Chine to go with some silk goods that she had at home, received this reply: "Oh, you don't want that. This pink is what you want to go with that silk." The answer involved a double risk, offense to one who had not asked advice, and the chance that the pink goods, if purchased, would not prove satisfactory, and that blame for the transaction would rest upon the seller. The salesgirl should have said something like this: "Well, that would be very pretty; but here is a color that perhaps you would like still better."

Occasionally you should try to produce the conviction that the prospect does not want what he thinks he wants. If, for example, he decides to buy something that you know is unfit for his purpose, you should, in the interest of future trade, oppose his decision. Courteously tell him why he should not buy what he has decided upon, and do not sell him that article except in response to his insistence. If he

insists that that is what he wants, he assumes the responsibility for the transaction, and realizes that he is doing so.

Two instances from the same business will illustrate the difference between present methods and those that were in use years ago. A writer humorously describes a recent experience in an eastern city. He picked out and bought a felt hat, and had holes punched in it for ventilation. On returning to his room in the hotel, he put on the hat, looked in the mirror, and concluded that there was no sufficient reason for wearing a hat that made one look homelier than he really was. He took the hat back to the salesman of whom he had bought it, and expected to buy another in its place. Much to his surprise, the salesman refused to accept pay for the second hat, saying that he should have informed the buyer that the first hat was not suitable. Quite different from this was the sale of a hat in another city many years ago. On a hot, summer day a red faced youth from the country came into a hat store and asked to see some straw hats. His fancy was taken by one that had a very brilliant band, but the hat was not large enough and was the only one of the kind. After trying in vain to interest the prospect in another hat, the salesman, who happened to be the proprietor also, finally induced decision by saying, "Well, I'll tell you. You walked into town, and got all heated up. The blood has rushed to your head, and made it at least a size larger than it is usually. You take this hat that you like, and you'll find when you go home and get cooled off that it will be just the right size."

A common fault in attempts to produce conviction

is shown in the following contrast in salesmanship. A high school boy looking for a graduation suit, made known his wants. The salesman took him to a case of light colored suits. Then, as the prospect said that he wanted a dark suit, the salesman replied, "Well, I think that's sensible." Naturally the prospect wondered why the salesman had shown the light suits first. The salesman handed out ten and twelve dollar suits when he should have known that they were not good enough under the circumstances. As soon as the prospect seemed to show interest in a suit the salesman would say something like the following: "That's a beautiful suit." "Wonderful goods!" "Just what you want!" Not only had the salesman failed to get the point of contact, but his expressions of opinion were evidently insincere. The prospect went to another store. There he was met by a very different kind of salesman. After waiting for the prospect to make known his wishes, the salesman asked a question or two, handed out a suit of late style and good quality, and inquired, "Would you care for something like this?" The prospect, after looking at several other suits, took the one that was first offered.

Decision.

If possible, induce a favorable decision on the merits of the case, but do not get a decision that will result in a dissatisfied customer.

Among the most common faults of salesmen is an assumption that the prospect is under obligation to buy, and a show of vexation if he does not do so. Such an assumption seems to rest on the idea that the

prospect asked to see the goods, and that an obligation to buy has arisen because the salesman has granted the request. That kind of reasoning will not stand analysis. It is to the advantage of the seller to show his goods, and the prospect, instead of being the one who is especially favored, has favored the seller by giving him opportunity to do so.

Do not make it too difficult for a prospect to leave without buying. You want him to come again. If through over-persuasion of any sort you induce him to buy what he does not want, you cause him to feel that he has been imposed upon, and he will be likely to express his resentment by staying away from your store, and, perhaps by being instrumental in keeping others away. *To talk people into buying what they do not want is to talk yourself out of customers.* Even if insistence does not result in a sale, it is unpleasant to the prospect, and stands in the way of future trade.

No Sale.

If you do not succeed in making a sale, you have still an opportunity for the cultivation of good will. A word of regret that you cannot offer what is wanted, a pleasant invitation to call again, an expression of hope or confidence that you will be able to be of service at another time, direction to a place where the goods may be purchased, anything of this sort will serve to relieve a situation ofttimes embarrassing to the prospect, and will cultivate a friendly attitude toward you and your store.

Handling Complaints.

In the natural course of business we need not expect entire avoidance of mistakes. Some orders will

not be properly filled, some goods will be defective, some purchasers will be careless, and for these and other reasons, some customers will make complaints. Of these complaints there will be those that are reasonable, and those that are not. In the interests of future trade, however, the present tendency is to treat all complaints as though they were reasonable. This tendency finds expression in the saying attributed to Marshall Field & Company that "the customer is always right." The same idea is found in the thought that "the sale is not complete until the buyer is satisfied." The following from a house organ, the "Shuman Corner Organizer," covers a portion of this subject excellently: "You should be more willing to handle a complaint than to make a sale, for when a customer comes back with anything which has in any way proven unsatisfactory, he is naturally a little put out, and if the salesman is agreeable and attentive in making matters right, ... the customer will not forget it. Always impress upon him the fact that you are glad he returned the ..... article, thus giving you the opportunity of setting yourself and your firm right with him." This implies that the salesman, or his firm, is at fault. When the fault is the customer's, it is also advisable, as a usual thing, to be agreeable and accommodating. Even though a loss may result from the transaction, that is usually preferable to a dissatisfied customer. It is a common saying that a satisfied customer is the best advertisement; it is equally true that a dissatisfied customer is the worst advertisement.

A new gun missed fire with unusual frequency. When returned after several weeks, another was

given in exchange for it. This was done without hesitancy, and so pleasantly that the good will of the buyer was decidedly increased. The buyer, however, though wholly justified in returning the defective gun, had a slightly uncomfortable feeling of obligation which would have been avoided if the salesman had said, as he was authorized to do, that the loss would fall upon the manufacturers, as they guaranteed all of their goods. Such a statement, moreover, would have been a good advertisement.

A very bad handling of a complaint appears in the following incident. A statement of account showed this item:

6 yds. Muslin	.20	1.50

The sales slip record was

6 yds. Muslin	.20	1.20

With suitable explanation a check for $1.20 was sent in payment. Several months later another statement contained the same overcharge. The error was called to the attention of the bookkeeper. He said that before sending the second statement he had inquired about the matter, and had found that the salesgirl remembered that the goods were selling that day at .25 a yard. The customer replied that they might consider the account settled. Naturally she not only transferred her trade elsewhere, but also informed others in regard to the unpleasant incident.

Order-Taking.

Many retail sales have been classed as mere order-taking, as a thing so simple as to be worthy of nothing more than a slighting remark. This is not as it

should be. In the taking of orders, there is opportunity for the exercise of many qualities that are characteristic of the good salesman. Alertness, courtesy, concentration, knowledge of kind, location, and price of goods, quickness, care, accuracy, are all essential to good order-taking, and may easily be preliminary to higher forms of salesmanship. As occasion offers, the order-taker may ask questions as to the time of delivery of goods, and in some cases may show his interest in the customer by stating how the goods will be packed to insure safety. Such things make favorable impressions upon those who are served, and are well worth while in the effect that they have upon the retention and increase of trade.

Questions and Topics.

1. What is the result of the recent analysis of salesmanship?
2. To what do the principles of salesmanship apply?
3. Definition of salesmanship.
4. a. Is it true that the salesman is "born and not made"?
   b. The best salesman.
5. Two kinds of personality.
6. a. Why should the salesman cultivate a good outer personality?
   b. Why should he cultivate a good inner personality?
7. a. What natural and acquired ability should the salesman have?
   b. Of what principles should he have a knowledge?

8. Why do we limit ourselves principally to a study of positives?
9. Relation between health and success. Explain.
10. a. What is a primary purpose of health of body?
    b. "Higher levels of energy."
    c. Should we be habitually sparing of effort in work and play? Why?
    d. Mental states to be avoided.
11. Health and self-control.
12. How does the discussion of health apply to the salesman?
13. Why should the salesman be ambitious?
14. Ambition and purpose.
15. What six kinds of knowledge should the salesman have?
16. General information.
17. "Know thyself."
18. Knowledge of human nature.
19. a. Why should the salesman know the needs of the prospect?
    b. Why should he not always accept the stated needs of the prospect?
20. a. How does inadequate knowledge of what he offers affect the salesman?
    b. Why does a thorough knowledge of goods give a salesman confidence?
    c. Use of an item of interest.
21. a. In a general way, what three things should a salesman know about his stock?
    b. Wasting the time of the customer.
22. In order to demonstrate his goods, what must the salesman know about them?

23. Knowledge of related departments.
24. What should be the basis of the salesman's belief in himself?
25. Why should the salesman believe in his business?
26. Insincerity in selling talk.
27. Salesman's belief in his house.
28. Salesman's belief in his prospects.
29. What does trained observation enable the salesman to do?
30. Punctuality.
31. What kinds of expression should we cultivate? Why?
32. a. General appearance of the salesman.
    b. Suitable dress of the salesman.
33. Relation between attention and self-control.
34. a. The salesman and self-control.
    b. How should the salesman treat rudeness?
35. a. How may the prospect make use of the salesman's timidity, nervousness, over-haste, or over-anxiety?
    b. How may the salesman overcome these undesirable mental states?
36. Why is poise a power in salesmanship?
37. a. Definition of courtesy.
    b. What does the courtesy of the salesman accomplish?
    c. When is courtesy required? Why?
38. Discourtesy in business.
39. a. Substance of quotation from Ells in regard to cheerfulness.
    b. Stanza that applies to cheerfulness.
    c. Application in business.

40. Assumed cheerfulness.
41. What sort of voice should the salesman have?
42. The salesman's manner of speech.
43. Use of the eyes.
44. a. Definition of tact.
    b. Value of tact.
45. Comparison of adaptability and tact.
46. Why is adaptability especially important to the salesman?
47. a. Definition of enthusiasm.
    b. Effect on prospect of salesman's enthusiasm.
48. Enthusiasm and lasting success.
49. Excessive display of enthusiasm.
50. Ability to make friends.
51. What five characteristics of the salesman do you consider most important? Page 85.
52. a. What things are essential to the development of a well-rounded personality?
    b. What things stand in the way of such development?
    c. How should the salesman get rid of doubt and fear?
    d. Of indifference, of inertia?
    e. How should the salesman gain increasing mastery over himself?
    f. How may the salesman enlarge his powers?
53. Attitude of salesman toward difficulties.
54. Dwelling upon mistakes, failures, and obstacles.
55. Quality of goods handled by salesman.
56. Appearance of goods handled by salesman. Illustration.
57. Place of sale.
58. Treatment of customer.

59. What does the customer want? Explain.
60. a. The customer as a buyer.
    b. For what does the customer pay?
    c. What has the customer a right to expect?
    d. How does an unfit purchase affect the buyer?
    e. Why should the seller protect the customer's interests?
61. Illustrations proving that merchants try to protect the interests of their customers.
62. a. Definition of a sale of goods.
    b. Definition of a sale of services.
63. a. When does a sale begin?
    b. When does it end?
64. Why does a good salesman greatly depend upon his adaptability?
65. Why is an exact correlation of the activities of the buyer and seller impossible?
66. Outline of sale, page 51.
67. Why should salesmanship not be wholly centered in the making of sales?
68. a. Why is the mere acquisition of good will not sufficient?
    b. How may good will be lost?
    c. What are "sales that make sales"?
69. a. Is a carefully detailed plan of the way in which you are going to meet your prospect always advisable?
    b. What maxim applies? How?
70. The selling machinery.
71. a. What should be done to fix the attention of the prospect on what is offered?

b. Why is it necessary to get the prospect to center his attention on what is offered?

72. a. What sort of interest must be aroused in the prospect?
b. What ideas must be held before him?

73. a. What is the purpose of the selling talk?
b. Obstacles in the way of accomplishing this purpose.
c. How can the salesman overcome the inertia and indifference of the prospect?
d. The ignorance, incredulity, and prejudice?
e. Indecision and obstinacy?

74. Why is indistinct or over-rapid utterance a serious fault?

75. a. What spoils the effect of many a good word?
b. Why is it not advisable to atempt to talk to a prospect who is not ready to listen?

76. What may the salesman gain by listening?

77. a. Interrupting the prospect.
b. Talking too much.

78. Knowledge of selling talk.

79. When should low price be mentioned?

80. Should high price ever be mentioned before the prospect asks the price? Why?

81. a. The use of argument.
b. When does argument become controversy?
c. What is the usual result of controversy?
d. Certain topics that should be generally avoided. An exception.

82. a. Upon what does the value of suggestion in selling depend?
b. What type of mind is especially suggestible?
c. Illustrations of the proper use of suggestion.

83. Result of over-persuasion.
84. How can the salesman know whether he is making the right impression?
85. a. What are specialty sales?
    b. What do specialty sales include?
86. Why do we consider specialty sales first?
87. Conflicting ideas as to the limits of the pre-approach.
88. a. Definition of pre-approach.
    b. In general, what is the work in the pre-approach? Illustration.
    c. Dwelling upon discouraging characteristics of the prospect.
    d. The use of observation.
    e. Samples.
89. a. What may cause a wrong mental attitude in the salesman?
    b. Why does a wrong mental attitude make selling doubly difficult?
    c. Quotation from Atkinson that applies to mental attitude.
90. a. If the salesman doubts the outcome of his efforts, what should he do? Illustration.
    b. Getting rid of depression.
91. Care of machines, samples, and papers.
92. a. Review of selling talk.
    b. By what should the unexpected in selling be met?
    c. Advice of Mr. Ells in regard to the selling talk.
93. Final step in establishing a right mental attitude.

94. Why and how is the relative importance of the parts of the sale changing?
95. a. What characteristics of the salesman will gradually disappear?
    b. By what will they be replaced?
96. a. Approach and opportunity.
    b. What should you observe as you enter the environment of the prospect with whom you are not acquainted?
97. According to Atkinson, what is the right way to gain a man's liking?
98. Importance of first impressions.
99. a. Approach to a stranger.
    b. Why is a good first impression not absolutely necessary?
100. Time and place of approach.
101. Interrupting a prospect to gain attention.
102. Addressing your prospect.
103. The apologetic attitude.
104. Salesman's bearing during the introduction to his selling talk.
105. The use of compliments.
106. Asking prospect if he wants to buy something.
107. Asking prospect if you can sell him something.
108. Rebuffs.
109. a. According to Dewey, what is the essential characteristic of attention?
    b. Toward what end is attention ultimately directed?
    c. Upon what interests are the activities of attention based?
110. What does Spencer say about the manner of one who addresses us?

111. To what should the salesman attract attention especially? Why?
112. Prospect not ready to listen.
113. a. To what should the first sentence that relates to your proposition appeal?
    b. What is the one great instinct?
    c. What subsidiary instincts are especially susceptible to the appeals of the salesman?
    d. Define acquisitiveness, constructiveness, emulation.
114. Attention-gaining ideas.
115. a. To what instincts may a salesman appeal in selling a cash register?
    b. A box of tools?
116. a. Why should you not elaborate details as you first come to them?
    b. What does James say about voluntary attention?
    c. How does that apply to the work of the salesman?
    d. What is the value of an outline selling talk?
117. a. What is the most important part in the process of the sale?
    b. Into what two steps is the demonstration divided?
    c. Meaning of "demonstrate" in connection with salesmanship.
    d. Explain why it is not possible definitely to limit the demonstration.
118. When is the time to induce final action?
119. a. What is interest as related to a purchase?
    b. What is the relation of such interest to continued attention?

c. What should be the prominent feature of your demonstration? Why?

120. Purpose of salesman in asking questions.

121. What is the best way in which to meet ordinary objections?

122. a. Why are objections not necessarily obstructions to a sale?
b. How should you meet "I don't want it"?
c. "Your price is too high"?
d. "It costs too much"?

123. a. When should an objection be answered?
b. Why should it not be dwelt upon?
c. Postponement of answer to an objection.

124. Contradicting a prospect. Illustration.

125. Differing from an expressed opinion of the prospect.

126. Unimportant objections.

127. Indirect handling of objections.

128. Unanswerable objections.

129. Attitude when meeting objections.

130. Where is the "reason why"?

131. Various ways in which customers are won.

132. Analysis of process that convinced you.

133. Why should you not take for granted that people know what they want?

134. Two phases of conviction.

135. a. Explain "His knowledge is your point of departure."
b. How should you treat the knowledge of the prospect?

136. Enthusiasm.

137. a. What should be the nature of your selling talk throughout the demonstration?

b. What is the main object of the demonstration?

138. Suggestion of buying during the demonstration.

139. a. Along what lines should you cause your prospect to think? Why?

b. Should you argue to convince the prospect that he is wrong? Why?

140. Why is repeated assertion often more effective than argument?

141. The principle of corroboration.

142. How can you make your strong points impressive?

143. With what kind of selling points should you begin and end your demonstration? Why?

144. Concentration on selling points.

145. Securing admissions.

146. a. Should you mention competition during your demonstration?

b. Injustice to competitors or to competing goods or propositions.

c. Commendation and adverse criticism.

d. How may unfairness react upon you?

147. Attention given to competition.

148. Referring to competition in a general way.

149. Diverting attention from competing goods.

150. Needless demonstration.

151. How is the prospect's desire to possess aroused?

152. a. Definition of decision.

b. Why should the salesman appeal to the feelings and make use of repetition?

153. a. Conflicting motives of an undecided prospect.

b. What should the salesman do to induce favorable decision?
c. Summing up.

154. a. What is the psychological moment?
b. As related to the prospect, what two possible instants does it include?

155. When may the psychological moment occur?

156. a. Psychologically, when is the sale completed? Explain.
b. Why can the salesman not be satisfied with a psychological sale?
c. What sort of action should the salesman induce?

157. How should action be suggested? Why?

158. Hesitation as related to inducing action.

159. Taking the initiative.

160. Slighting demonstration.

161. Giving directions after sale.

162. Attitude after sale.

163. Reference to subject matter of sale after sale is made.

164. Conversation following sale.

165. What to do in case of no sale.

166. Failure to sell as a source of advantage.

167. In the first illustrative sale what was the intention of the prospect when she started down town?

168. What impressed her favorably in the window display?

169. How was this good impression increased as she went into the store?

170. How was she met by the saleswoman?

171. How did the saleswoman arouse interest in certain pieces of goods?
172. How did she find the point of contact?
173. a. What use did she make of the principle of contrast?
174. a. How did she appeal to the prospect's imagination?
    b. Why did she suggest the waist before she had sold goods for the suit?
175. Why did she pause before answering the question as to the number of yards?
176. How did she answer the objection as to price?
177. What remark of the prospect indicates the psychological moment?
178. After the sale, what did the saleswoman do to increase good will?

(Be ready to answer similar questions on the other illustrative sale.)

179. Compared with the specialty salesman, what advantages has the traveling man?
180. Personality of the traveling salesman.
181. Caution in regard to friendliness.
182. Right use of friendliness.
183. Common interests outside of business. Illustrations.
184. Attitude toward competitors.
185. The three-fold responsibility of the traveling salesman. Explain.
186. a. Range of salesman's activity in retail sales.
    b. The outline as applied to retail sales.
187. General statement in regard to the place of business.

188. a. Location of store.
b. Exterior.
c. Interior.
189. Appearance and attitude of salespeople.
190. Duties and characteristics of floor manager.
191. a. Duties and characteristics of social secretary.
b. What duties might sometimes well be combined with those of the social secretary?
192. a. Describe the manner and expression of the salesman in the approach.
b. Calling prospect by name.
c. Assuming a distant or superior air.
193. a. Should the salesman ask a question as soon as he meets his prospect? Why?
b. Discuss questions, bad and good.
194. Treatment of all who enter store.
195. Two prospects at once.
196. a. Pitch of voice while talking with prospects.
b. What should the salesman's attitude make evident to the prospect?
197. Negative questions. Examples, bad and good.
198. a. Grade of goods to offer. Illustrations.
b. How many kinds to offer.
c. Reluctance in showing goods.
199. Why should the prospect be allowed to follow his own inclinations?
200. a. After a sale, in calling attention to other goods, what sort of questions should be avoided? Why? Give examples.
b. Instead of asking such questions, what should the salesman do?

c. How may he call attention to goods not related to what he has just sold?
d. Value of such statements.

201. Appealing to the senses.
202. Manner of handling goods.
203. Turning over the prospect.
204. Use of contrast to produce conviction. Illustration.
205. a. When should a salesman give advice?
b. Why should he be careful about giving advice? Illustration.
206. When and how should a salesman oppose his prospect's preference?
207. Illustration showing contrast in past and present selling methods.
208. Incident showing contrast in present methods.
209. Assumption of obligation to buy.
210. Talking people into buying what they do not want.
211. No sale and good will.
212. Handling complaints. Illustrations.
213. Order-taking.

PART VI

ADVERTISING

Definition of Advertising.

"To advertise is to cause a turning to."

The Function of Advertising.

The principal function of commercial advertising is to be instrumental in the sale of goods and services; to interest people in regard to what is offered for sale, to instruct them, and to induce them to act in ways that will lead to the sale of that which is advertised.

A part of the proper work of advertising is to awaken and stimulate desirable wants, and to indicate the means by which they may be satisfied. Thus in its right use, advertising becomes of great social significance. This is true not merely because it facilitates business, but also on account of its civilizing influence. It brings the new, the improved, and the old that has stood the test, to the attention of people, arouses the desire for better things, and so tends continually to raise the standard of living.

The Importance of Advertising as a Business Factor.

As a factor in business, the importance of advertising is shown to some extent by the amount that is paid for it. It is estimated that nearly $700,000,000 are spent annually for advertising in the United

States. More intelligible, perhaps, is the fact that the price paid for the back cover of a single issue of a certain popular magazine runs as high as $10,000. It is interesting to note that, according to estimate, one-seventh of the amount spent for advertising is wasted.

Advertising enables the producer and the seller to dispose of their commodities much more rapidly than would be possible without its assistance. In many cases, it enlarges their market, enables them to expand their business, and through expansion to secure the advantages of large scale industry.

The Effect of Advertising on Quality of Commodities. As all people are consumers, they are naturally interested in the effect of advertising on quality in relation to price of commodities. Most advertising is competitive. The advertising of one firm competes for trade with the advertising of other firms in the same kind of business The ultimate success of advertising in this competition for trade is largely dependent upon quality of product in relation to price. For this reason we may expect improvement in product as a basis for advertising.

Large scale industry, often a result of good advertising, decreases the cost of production. This decreased cost enables the producer to improve his product without increasing its price. This is often considered preferable to a lowering of price. The improvement in product may be used not only as a means to decrease the cost of selling, but also as a point to be featured in advertising.

The Effect of Advertising on Price of Commodities. The effect of advertising on price to the consumer depends upon the kind, magnitude, and management of the business in which it is employed. Considering these elements of variation, it is evident that no one statement of the effect of advertising on price can apply to all cases. A firm that does a large business, and that advertises successfully, may lower the price of its product if it chooses to do so. On the other hand, if it has advantages that make it largely independent of competition, as, for example, the ownership of a patent right, the full cost of advertising may readily be included in the price that consumers are required to pay. In all cases in which advertising results in improved quality of product without increased price, we have in fact a lower price than we should have had if the product had not been advertised. There are, moreover, many instances in which a decrease of price has come from the increase of business that has resulted from advertising.

Advertising has been unduly blamed for price increase. For a quarter century, as money has decreased in purchasing power, more and more of it has been needed in exchange for goods. Therefore prices have risen. The change in the purchasing power of money has been great. Even before the beginning of the world war, it is probable that the dollar had lost at least one-third of its value in exchange. From this it is evident that commodities may have advanced in price to a very marked degree without any part of the advance being due to advertising. Notwithstanding the increased price, moreover, commodities may in fact be much cheaper to-

day than they were twenty-five years ago. We should have in mind, too, that another considerable cause of high price today as compared with prices of an earlier day is the increased expense of containers and of service. Advertising is sometimes a cause of high price; even then it is only one of several causes working toward the same end.

The Relation of Advertising to Buying.

For the reason that permanent business cannot be built up on misrepresentation, advertising, especially if it be long continued, is a guaranty of quality. Thus it serves as a guide and protection to those who buy. If a firm has advertised the same kind of goods continuously for many years, the natural inference is that the goods have proven satisfactory to customers. There is also another reason why advertising is a guaranty of quality. With a partial exception in the case of commodities of high value or of great durability, the profit that comes from advertising usually depends upon reorders from customers, and orders that come through their recommendation. This is true because, with many kinds of goods, the expense of advertising is seldom covered by the profits from sales that result directly from the advertisements. In general, if it is to be permanently profitable, advertising must be reliable. This has come to be so well understood that the slogan of the Associated Advertising Clubs of the World is "Truth."

Opposed to the interests of the buyer are fraudulent advertising, and the advertising of injurious commodities. In recent years, however, advertising has risen rapidly in the ethical scale, and many of

our standard newspapers and magazines are now very careful as to the kind of advertising that is admitted to their pages. Some publishers guarantee the reliability of all who advertise in their publications, and refuse to admit advertisements of injurious commodities. By excluding much that is harmful, many publishers have greatly increased the value of advertising as a guide to those who buy.

The Relation of Advertising to Selling.

Much of the process of selling is not properly a part of advertising, but all commercial advertising is included in the selling process. Commercial advertising is a partial or complete process of selling – partial if it requires supplemental means to effect sales, complete if it results directly in legal acceptance of that which is offered for sale.

Advertising Sustained by Selling.

To be long successful, advertising must be sustained by good selling, and an important requisite of good selling is a knowledge of what has been advertised in regard to that which is offered for sale. Such knowledge is indispensable to the salesman if he is properly to complete the work that advertising has begun.

Conferences Between Advertising Manager and Salesmen.

It is essential, not only that salesmen should be familiar with what is advertised concerning their goods, but also that those who prepare the advertising should have an intimate knowledge of the selling part of the business. To obtain this there should be fre-

quent conferences between the advertiser and the salesmen. The latter, because they come into immediate contact with customers and prospects, are in position to learn much about selling conditions, and should be encouraged to express their ideas.

The Advertising Campaign.

Our discussion of advertising will necessarily be brief. The subject is a very broad one, and as it cannot be treated here in anything like a comprehensive way, it seems that our purpose will best be served by what we may call an outline treatment of the topics of advertising that are relatively important. In this connection we want facts, some knowledge of how they should be used, and some skill in applying our knowledge to simple forms of advertising. With these ideas in mind it will be understood why topics appear in unusually rapid succession.

In planning an advertising campaign of any magnitude there are many things to be considered; among them (1) the features of the product that are peculiarly advertisable; (2) the probability of a sufficient market; (3) the facilities for meeting demand; (4) the expense of suitable advertising; and (5) the conditions of competition. If the consideration of these matters ends in a favorable outlook, there are still many questions that demand attention. To what sort of people is the product most readily salable? Through what mediums can these people best be reached? What kind of copy will be most influential with them? What shall be the size of the advertisements? How often shall they appear? Shall they be illustrated? Shall they have borders? Shall there

be a trade mark, or a trade name? How shall the advertisements be tested? When these inquiries are answered, there still remains the very important question of how the selling shall be correlated with the advertising, of what arrangements shall be made so that the goods will be on sale in the right places as soon as advertising has created demand.

It is easily seen that answers to the foregoing questions will vary according to the product to be advertised, and the circumstances under which it may be produced. No attempt will be made to discuss all of the topics indicated. Some of them will but serve to give an idea of the range of the advertising field. Our present interests are centered principally in the group of questions in the latter part of the preceding paragraph, and from these, selections will be made.

Mediums.

The problem of deciding in regard to mediums is complex. The medium that is best for one product may not be good for another; if the product is salable to different classes, some prospects may best be reached through one medium, and others through a different one. The mediums from which selection may be made are numerous: newspapers, magazines, trade and professional journals, house organs, pamphlets, letters, flyers, price cards, sales slips, wrapping papers, packages, novelties, street cars, bill-boards, electric signs, and—of a nature quite different from all these —sampling and demonstrating. The list might easily be extended. The advertising manager in a department store has perhaps sixty mediums from which

to select; and a variety of mediums is used by most advertisers. (See Introduction and Exercise I under "Exercises," page 240.)

Newspapers.

Morning and evening papers of similar rank and circulation may differ in value as advertising mediums according to the classes that the advertiser wishes to reach. Investigations made by Professor Walter Dill Scott, of Northwestern University, indicate that business and professional men in general are more interested in morning than in evening papers, and that for certain lines of advertising morning papers are to be preferred; but that, if it is desired to reach the laboring classes, the evening papers are the better medium. It is probable that the leisure class would be more easily reached by the morning than by the evening papers, but that the latter would be more suitable for many kinds of merchandise, especially those in which it is desired to reach the majority of women buyers. Many of those who expect to go shopping on the morrow will examine the evening paper for next day bargains.

Within its territory, the newspaper has a general circulation, and reaches all classes of people. For these reasons it is peculiarly adapted to local advertising.

Magazines.

To those who are interested in the study of advertising there is usually no more attractive field than that which is offered by the magazines. In them we find all sorts of commodities advertised with appeals to all sorts of people; for this reason it is here that

the psychology of advertising appears to have its broadest range of application. Here, too, business wisdom and technical skill in advertising combine with some of the highest expressions of art to appeal to possible customers in the strongest way that circumstances will permit. In magazines, especially of the better class, advertising space is very expensive, and to be profitable it must be efficiently utilized. This in itself is a reason why we should expect in magazines a high grade of advertising.

As compared with the newspaper, the magazine may be said to have the advantage of a more leisurely reading, and therefore of appealing to readers in their more receptive moods. Moreover, the magazine is taken up again and again. This feature, however, may be more than offset by the frequency with which newspapers appear.

The advertiser pays not only for space, but also for influence; and the influence of a newspaper or a magazine in inducing people to buy what is advertised, is largely dependent upon its standard of advertising. We have seen that this standard is much higher than formerly, and that the present tendency is strongly toward the elimination of advertising that is deceptive or otherwise harmful. As its ethical plane rises, advertising increases its power of gaining the confidence of those to whom it is addressed, and thus becomes of far greater worth to those who advertise. As Professor Scott says, "The medium gives a tone of its own to all the advertisements contained in it."

To be properly productive, an advertisement must be well placed. When the advertising is intended to

reach many people, the medium, if it is a newspaper or a magazine, must have a wide circulation. If the advertising is intended for a well defined class, the medium should be selected in view of its circulation among that class. One would hardly advertise dress goods in "Popular Mechanics," or expansion bolts in "The Ladies' Home Journal." The character of the publication and of the advertising that it contains must be of a nature that will inspire confidence in prospects. Because it is natural to judge things by their environment, there is high value in right association. A good advertisement surrounded by bad advertisements is not good advertising.

Street Cars.

Farther on we shall take up the subjects of space and position as related to advertising in newspapers and magazines, and shall find that they have much to do with the effectiveness of the advertisements that appear in those mediums. In street car advertising, however, those features are negligible. The space that is occupied by advertisements that compete with one another for attention in street cars is generally uniform, and one position in the car is as good as another. These facts give interest to street car advertisements because those that succeed in gaining favorable attention must do so on account of their individual excellence. The car card should be strong in attention-gaining features, and should be of such a nature that it will make a quick, forceful, and pleasing impression.

Few advertisers place their main reliance on car cards as a medium. A great part of street car ad-

vertising is auxiliary—its purpose is to supplement and remind. It is condensed advertising. Car card advertising is often effective because of its conciseness, its power of gaining attention, and the fact that it reaches a large number of prospects frequently. Moreover, it reaches them when their attention is easily attracted, and when they are in a receptive mood.

The car card has a subtle influence. It impresses names, pictures, packages, slogans, and terse educative ideas upon the minds of prospects, until, when they come to buy, they take the line of least resistance, and ask for that with which they are somewhat familiar. (Exercise 2.)

Store Windows.

An increased appreciation of the value of window display is the prime cause of the marked change, within a few years, in the architecture of store fronts. This appreciation is further indicated by the fact that in many stores there is at least one employee whose sole business is to "trim" windows. (Exercise 3.)

A notable advantage of window display as a means of advertising is that it gives merchandise an excellent chance to advertise itself. In the store window, goods appeal directly to prospective buyers. The prospect sees, is interested, and perhaps convinced. If he is inclined to buy, it is easy for him to step into the store and make the purchase. Neither time nor distance interferes with the result of this kind of advertising, and its appeal is not weakened because it has to be expressed in words or pictures.

Though somewhat out of the natural order, there

are some features of the technique of window display that may be better considered here than elsewhere.

There are two general lines of policy that are followed in window display, one, to show many articles at once, and the other to show but one kind at a time, or a few kinds that naturally go together. To advertise a large assortment, the window may be filled with an incongruous variety of things, or if the purpose is to feature the low price of one kind of goods, that kind may be massed without much regard to artistic effect. As a general thing, however, certain principles of arrangement should be observed.

Unity of impression should be obtained by unity of display. There should be a consistent, and not too elaborate color scheme; lighting and decoration should be subordinate; they should not attract too much attention to themselves; properly handled, however, they give a good impression as to the quality of what is offered for sale. But few kinds of merchandise should be shown at one time, and those should be grouped in ways that are in harmony with the association of ideas. The window should not be so crowded that many articles compete for attention; a good part of the value of space lies in its use as space. If the window is large, and it is desired to display several kinds of merchandise at a time, unity should be preserved by dividing the window into sections by means of artistic partitions.

Balance should be maintained in window display. Merchandise should not be massed in one part of the window while a corresponding part is left comparatively vacant. (Exercise 4.)

Movement in window display is always attractive,

and may be very valuable if it is closely connected with that which is offered for sale. If not so connected, it is likely to divert attention to itself instead of directing it to that which it is intended to advertise.

Window displays are excellently adapted to attract attention, and to arouse interest in new goods, new styles, and bargains. To be most effective, they should be frequently changed.

Space.

In his work, "Advertising," Professor Daniel Starch, of the University of Wisconsin, gives an excellent analysis of space value in which he brings out the following points: Large space as compared with small impresses by its magnitude; it has less competition for attention; it permits a more adequate presentation of the proposition; and it gives a greater impression of reliability. Thus are presented the advantages of large space over small. There are, however, some slight disadvantages. Large space cannot be covered at a glance, and if it is unusually large, nearly all of it is likely to be passed over without attention by those who are not especially interested.

Experiment appears to have proven that large space compared with small has more than proportional attention-gaining power; that, for example, a full page advertisement has more than twice the attention value of one that occupies a half page. For many years the tendency has been to increase the size of advertisements. Professor Starch says that "up to 1890 only about one-fifth of the total advertising space in the magazines consisted of full page adver-

tisements. Today the ratio is nearly one-half.'' The spread, one advertisement covering opposite pages, is comparatively recent, and is often very effective.

Though it is no doubt true that large advertisements are more effective in proportion to size than small advertisements, it is generally accepted that space value is conditioned by the product advertised—that large space is more profitable than small for many kinds of commodities, and that the reverse is true in regard to other kinds. A one-eighth page, for illustration, would not be held good for an automobile advertisement, and most of us would not care to read a ''spread'' about Somebody's hatpins.

We should, moreover, have in mind the fact that quality in advertising is necessary as well as quantity. It is possible that in some instances the space idea has been carried to an extreme. There are those who believe that medium space well utilized is the most profitable kind of advertising for most kinds of goods.

Under certain circumstances it may be advisable to use large advertisements to gain attention before and during season, and small advertisements throughout the remainder of the year in order to decrease expense and to obtain, as far as possible, the cumulative effect that comes from continuity. This might well apply, for example, to the advertising of refrigerators. The opinion prevails that whether the space used is large or small, advertisements should appear regularly, and without an unusual period intervening.

Position.

The attention value of an advertisement in a newspaper or a magazine varies according to the position that it occupies. In both of these mediums the upper part of the page is usually preferable to the lower, because of the habit of reading from the top downward. Advertisements with coupons, however, should be placed so that the coupons come on the lower part of the page, where they can be easily filled out and detached. In that case the convenience of the prospect should outweigh the loss in attention value.

The top of a column surrounded by reading is generally considered the best position in a newspaper; second in value, the top next to reading; and third, the bottom next to reading. Some experiments seem to indicate, contrary to general opinion, that the upper left-hand corner of a page is the best position. There is but little agreement as to the comparative value of other positions, except that they are of considerably less value than those that have been mentioned.

In magazines, the preferred positions are almost uniformly considered to be, first, the back outside cover; second, the front inside cover; third, the back inside cover. The proportional attention value of these, as estimated by Professor Starch, is indicated by 2, 1½, and 1. There is choice, also, among other positions, but we have considered those that are most important. The preferred position for a spread is the center of the magazine. In the advertising section of a magazine, the right-hand page appears to be preferable to that on the left; if divided into

halves the upper half seems the better; if into horizontal quarters, the second from the top; if into vertical quarters, the upper right. Much advertising is found in long columns next to reading matter. Opinion varies as to this position. It is probable that many readers, interested in what they are reading, pass over such advertisements with slight attention.

Psychology and Advertising.

Before entering definitely upon the subject of copy, which naturally comes last both in the study and the preparation of advertising, it will be well to turn our attention to some of the relations that exist between psychology and advertising.

Professor Thorndike, of Columbia University, says that psychology is "the science of human nature," a definition that is peculiarly useful in relation to advertising. The purpose of the advertiser is to bring about a certain amount of conviction and consequent action. In the fulfillment of this purpose, psychology assists him in understanding both his task and the means by which it may be accomplished. If he is to produce conviction, he must know how to gain attention, how to change attention into interest, and how to present truth acceptably; if he is to induce action, he should be familiar with the motives of action, and with the ways in which they may be developed. To be highly successful in his work, the advertiser requires a well organized knowledge of human nature.

Much of what has been said in the discussion of the main topics preceding advertising has had to do with two questions: How do people act? Why do they act as they do? These questions are psycho-

logical. Thus far in the study of advertising, psychology has been helpful in regard to mediums, space, and position; and we shall draw upon it further in relation to the questions that remain to be considered.

The Advertisement.

Ordinarily the ultimate purpose of an advertisement is to make sales. To succeed in this, it must do much or all of that which devolves upon the salesman in making sales. So similar is the work of the advertisement to that of the salesman that the outline of the sale may well be used as an outline of what an advertisement should do. The advertisement should gain attention, arouse interest, and produce some degree of conviction; in many instances to fulfill its purpose, it should make conviction and desire so strong that they will serve as motives of action that will cause the completion of the contract of sale. In the further study of advertising, we shall follow somewhat closely the outline of the sale.

Pre-Approach.

In relation to an advertisement, the pre-approach of the salesman is suggested in a part of the preparation that is essential to the writer of copy. It is the duty of the writer of copy to find out what he can with reasonable effort about his prospects so that he can appeal to them effectively. In some ways, this part of his task is similar to that of the salesman in the pre-approach; in others, it is widely different. The salesman prepares to approach one, the writer of copy prepares to approach many. From another viewpoint, the writer of copy also prepares to ap-

proach one. That one, however, is the composite member of the class of people to be addressed, the imaginary one who thinks and acts in a way that is representative of his class. To get a clear idea of this composite person is far more difficult than it is to inform oneself concerning a real individual.

Attention.

The approach is more inclusive in the work of the salesman than in that of the writer of copy; in the work of both, however, there is the element of gaining attention.

It is not enough that an advertisement should attract attention; a splash of color on an otherwise blank page would do that effectively. An advertisement should attract attention directly to something which the advertiser especially wishes to be seen. In the great majority of advertisements, the evident purpose is to call attention as directly as possible to the thing advertised. If there is to be a deviation from the usual way, care should be taken lest the purpose of the advertisement be defeated. To attract attention to something not connected with the thing advertised is likely to prevent the reading of the advertisement. If an attempt to secure attention is to be made through indirection, however, the means should be clever enough to arouse appreciation, or so apparently natural as not to be dwelt upon. With the exception of devices like index fingers, arrows, and nearly all borders, the attention attracting features of an advertisement should ordinarily be relevant to the thing advertised, or to a fundamental

instinct with which it is closely connected. (Exercise 5.)

An advertisement should have the stopping power that comes from an attractive outline, and from such an arrangement of its principal features that its general significance may be comprehended at a glance. (Exercise 6.) We cannot attend to many things at a time. Experiments show that ordinary observers can attend to not more than four or five visual objects at once. This means that an advertisement should not have so many attention-gaining features that they will interfere with unity of impression, that there should not be too many illustrations, too great a number of display lines, or too much variety in type. (Exercise 7.)

In turning over the pages in the advertising section of a magazine, why do we pay especial attention to one advertisement and slight another that may be equally good? "Attention," says Dewey, "always selects with reference to some end which the mind has in view." With this truth in mind, we can see why an advertisement should make a quick and unified impression. In the opportunity that is offered by a glance, the advertisement should show how that which is advertised is related to some end that the observer has in view. The advertisement that should appeal to him is addressed to him, and to others who are like-minded with him.

As in a sale made by a salesman, so in an advertisement, the known should be the point of departure. In order to be readily interpreted, the new should be introduced in terms that are not new.

Means of Gaining Attention.

The size of an advertisement, as we have seen, is one of the most effective means of securing attention; of nearly as great significance is the element of contrast. A small body of black print on a large white page, or of light print on a dark page, is not likely to be passed over without attention. A liberal use of space, white or black, not only serves to focus attention on the advertisement, but also to keep counter-attractions at a distance. (Exercise 8.)

Reliance should not be placed on a single means of securing attention. You will recall the statement of William James that "there is no such thing as voluntary attention sustained for more than a few seconds at a time." With the same thought in mind, Dr. James R. Angell says that "to retain our attention for any considerable period an object must, . . . by changing its aspect, present itself as a new object, to which fresh responses can be made." From this we derive that, unless an advertisement is very brief, it should have successive attention-gaining features. Unity demands that these features be arranged in a logical sequence, and that they give a complete outline view of the advertisement. (Exercise 9.)

Illustrations.

With the exception of the very unusual, that which attracts attention most readily is that which is easily interpreted. This is one reason why illustrations have so much attention value. They are picture language, and most of what they have to say is understood at a glance. Frequently, too, they suggest

movement. This gives them additional attention value because an object in motion attracts our attention more quickly than the same object at rest. Probably this fact is largely due to instinct that has descended to us from our remote ancestors, from those primitive people who were at once hunters and the hunted, and whose existence depended greatly upon their alertness in detecting the movements of animals and of men. The attention value of the movement feature of illustration is greatest when it suggests human action, or movement with which human action is closely related. When, to these qualities of illustration there is added the attraction of color, it is probable that there is no other feature of an advertisement so great as that of illustration in attention-gaining power. (Exercises 10 and 11.)

Interest.

To be valuable in an advertisement, the attention-gaining factors must succeed in arousing interest in that which is advertised. In regard to this, an incident related by Mr. H. N. McKinney, a member of the firm that publishes "Printers' Ink," deserves consideration. Mr. McKinney and a friend were attracted to a store window where a crowd of people were looking at an advertisement in which the name of that which was advertised was plainly marked on a beautiful picture. The friend said, "That is what I call good advertising. See the crowd it draws." On Mr. McKinney's suggestion, one hundred persons coming away from the window were asked what the picture advertised. Not one of the hundred could tell. The advertisement was evidently of but little

direct value to those who were responsible for it, and it is probable that the indirect value was also very slight.

The work of one who succeeds in interesting his prospects by means of an advertisement is harder than that of the salesman in arousing interest in what he has to offer. The salesman has the opportunity of adapting himself to the changing moods of his prospects. If he says or does something that is not agreeable to the prospect, the evident effect may warn him to change his method of procedure; the writer of copy, on the contrary, may long offend without the kindly correction of evident effects, for the composite prospect may be very slow about expressing his pleasure or displeasure.

A writer on advertising says that "one of the familiar rules of advertising-constructing is that the human figure adds to interest-quality." While this is true in many instances, attention-quality would be a more inclusive expression. If such pictures are to give interest-quality directly to an advertisement, they must suggest something which gives the observer a personal interest in that which is advertised. Many pictures do this. The Cream of Wheat chef, for example, and the sturdy children who are pictured with him attract attention, and at the same time arouse interest by suggesting that the food advertised is healthful and appetizing. The Kelly-Springfield Tire girl, on the contrary, serves merely to gain attention, and this is but typical of many other pictures used in advertising. The attractive, relevant picture has a double value; and, as we have seen, the picture that is merely attractive may inter-

fere with the purpose of the advertisement. (Exercises 12 and 13.)

Conviction.

To be worth while, an advertisement must produce enough conviction to serve as a motive of action that will lead to a sale, or to many sales. In an advertisement, as in an oral sale, conviction is produced by assertion, argument, and suggestion.

Decision.

In relation to decision, the purpose of the advertiser, except in direct mail and mail-order advertising, is usually to induce people to decide to do something that will lead to sales, to send names and addresses, to secure further information, to go to see goods, or to receive goods on trial. If, however, the purpose of the advertiser is to bring about sales without the assistance of other means, the task before him, while similar to that of the salesman, is considerably more difficult. The salesman, in his summing up to induce decision, may make use of the knowledge gained during the preceding steps toward a sale, but the advertiser has no such advantage; he cannot review the effects of the different parts of his work. This may account in part for the fact that in advertisements there usually is but little summing up. It is possible that not enough use is made of this means of inducing decision.

Action.

The means used in advertisements to induce action are suggestion and direct commands. As to the first of these, the advertisement as a whole is often

the source of the intended suggestion. It sets forth the desirable features of what is advertised, and indicates where it may be obtained. This in itself suggests the desired action. Often, however, the suggestion is more definitely expressed. "Correspondence invited." "The number of copies is limited." "This advertisement appears but once." "Expert advice free." "This offer holds good for thirty days only." Many such suggestions have the double purpose of inducing action, and preventing delay. Among the common commands we find: "Write us for particulars." "Sign and return the enclosed card." "Send for booklet." "Let us send you the machine for a ten days' trial without expense to you," and a rather frequent one of doubtful utility, "Do it now!" Perhaps the most effective means of inducing action is the coupon. Conveniently left blank in places, and located where it can easily be filled out and detached, it in itself suggests action. The command that goes with it tends toward the same end. (Exercises 14 and 15.)

Copy.

The writer of copy has before him two main problems. What shall be put into his copy? In what form shall it appear?

Characteristics of Copy Writer.

To solve these problems the writer must have certain well defined characteristics. It is not enough that he should be a good writer. The good writer, in fact, may have to guard against a style that would be pleasing to his literary taste. He should know the natures of those to whom his copy is to be ad-

dressed, and the means, as far as language and form are concerned, by which they may be induced to act. The writer of copy must be able to analyze products and services. He must be able to distinguish the essential from the non-essential. He must know what features of that which is to be advertised will appeal to the class that he wishes to reach, and must have the ability to express his ideas in ways that are agreeable and effective. He should be a good critic of his own work, able to judge it by its probable effect on those whom it is intended to influence. He should be careful to estimate his work not by what he reads into it, but by what he thinks will be the impressions made on those for whose reading the work is prepared. He should be guided by his purpose in advertising, and to that purpose he should subordinate every part of his work.

Control of Mental Connections.

Professor Thorndike gives the following principles in regard to the control of a person's mental connections.

"1. Know what his situation is.
2. Know what response you wish to get from him.
3. Know what satisfies or annoys him.
4. Make the connection; do not expect the response to come as a miracle.
5. Other things being equal, make no connections that you will later have to unmake."

To control a person's mental connections is merely to cause him to think along lines that you suggest. In different form, the first four of the principles

given by Professor Thorndike have received attention in our consideration of salesmanship. They apply to advertising as well as to the other selling processes The fifth principle is especially applicable to the irrelevant in advertising. If language or illustration cause a wrong mental connection, if they cause people to think of something that is not closely related to that which is advertised, the connection so made will have to be unmade before the advertisement will have fulfilled its purpose. The kind of copy that makes misleading mental connections is rapidly disappearing. (Exercise 16.)

Whose Goods to Advertise.

As a writer of copy, you should keep in mind that the object of your advertisement is to sell or to assist in selling what you offer for sale. Make your advertisement sell *your* goods, not those of your competitors. To accomplish this, you must advertise not merely the general class of goods in which you deal, but your particular goods. Individualize them; make them stand out clearly, and make a definite connection between them and the wants of your prospects. (Exercise 17.)

Subject Matter.

Good copy usually consists of attractive, interesting information about a product that the advertiser offers for sale. It deals with essential things in connection with a product, what it is, what it is good for, its points of excellence, the means of getting further information in regard to it, how the product may be obtained, and the name of the manufacturer or dealer. (Exercise 18.)

Number of Things Featured.

Usually, a single advertisement should not attempt to feature many things. When directed to many things at the same time, attention is scattered, and the consequent ideas are indistinct. To be forceful an impression must be definite. A sentence that is understood has conveyed more meaning than a page that has been merely glanced at. Much good advertising is built up around not more than two or three focal ideas. The advertising of food, for example, continually emphasizes purity, taste, and healthfulness. Dutch Cleanser "Chases Dirt." For many years, the makers of a certain revolver have called attention to a safety feature by insisting that the readers of their advertisements should "Hammer the Hammer," and that insistence has been an excellent selling device. If the product to be advertised has many special features, it is often advisable to make a series of advertisements with one or two prominent ideas in each. However, a product in the numerous details of which many people are likely to be interested, may require exceptional treatment. An automobile advertisement, for illustration, to be at its best, seems to need unusual power of attraction and many details.

Appeal.

In thinking about the appeals that you are to make, you should keep in mind that you desire to induce certain kinds of action, and that there are obstacles in the way of what you wish to do. Some of your prospects will be indifferent, and you will need to make connection between what you offer and

their interests; others will lack knowledge of the good points in your product or your proposition, and a part of your duty will be to give them interesting information; nearly all of those to whom you appeal will have a tendency to act as they have been in the habit of acting, and your success may depend on your ability to overcome this tendency.

If your appeals are to be successful, they must cause your prospects to think along lines that you mark out. These lines should be attractive and definite. You must give direction to the creative imagination of those whom you address.

As in other kinds of selling, your appeals should be closely connected with the interests of your prospects. Get them to see in what ways they will be benefited, and emphasize *their* reasons for acting as you suggest.

It is said that statistics show that women buy eight-tenths of all merchandise, and that their influence extends to the purchase of nearly everything else. This thought should usually be in mind when you are preparing to induce the imaginary, composite individual to buy what you offer for sale. This composite individual, moreover, is a creature of many tendencies; and in order to connect with these tendencies, appeals should be of various kinds. For this reason, the advertiser should appeal to as many senses as practicable. If for example, he advertises a shoe of good quality, he should call attention not only to its style, durability, and the special features in its manufacture, but also to the comfort that the wearer will derive from that particular kind of shoe. If he is advertising a high grade, thin model, open face

watch, he should get his reader to imagine its reliability, its durability, its convenience, its beauty, the pleasure that he would have in the possession of such a watch, and the satisfaction of owning a watch whose name is in itself a guaranty. (Exercise 19.)

As men are reasonable, arguments may appeal to them; as they are suggestible, they may be induced to act by suggestions, illustrations, affirmations, and commands. Whatever the form used, the writer of copy should remember that *the source of effort is a desire for satisfaction.* Unless that which claims our attention awakens in us a feeling of its possible usefulness to us, it soon passes out of consideration. "We require of a truth that it shall soften or lengthen our days—or give assurance concerning the future."—C. H. Luther.

Educational Copy.

Intelligent selection requires a comparative knowledge of goods and of the various uses to which they may be applied. In meeting these requirements, educational copy is of great assistance. (Exercise 20.)

Educational argument is necessary to produce conviction in regard to new products, and to convince non-users of the desirability of products that are well known. We have, therefore, the kind of copy that is known as "Reason Why." Printers' Ink says: "The best Reason Why is the Reason Why he wants it." Advertise the reasons why your prospect should want to buy. Make it easy for him to act as you desire by providing him with sufficient reasons why he should do so. Generally the power of your

argument lies in what your goods will do for your prospect.

Except in special cases, do not advertise your reasons for wanting to sell. On occasion, it is advisable to give a reason why you make a certain offer. If you are leaving the city permanently, and wish to sell your home, tell why. If you advertise especially low price, give the reason.

An interesting phase in the development of educational copy is shown in the present tendency to advertise new uses of certain long established products. As this is in the interest of intelligent selection, we may expect an increase of the tendency.

Having decided on the substance of his copy, and the effects that he wishes it to produce, the writer of copy is ready to enter upon the solution of his second main problem, the form in which his work can be made most productive. This involves the questions of style, illustration, and what is technically known as the layout.

Style.

A good advertisement is a plain, forceful statement of facts so arranged as to attract favorable attention to important details of that which is offered for sale.

Under the heading, "The Power of Simple English," Printers' Ink published some years ago the following effective advertisement written by a twelve-year-old boy:

> "School is out Friday and I don't want to be piddling around all summer. I want a job. If you want a good, hard-working boy,

try me. Answer quick. BOBBIE HUMES.
Old 'phone No. 9. Cor. Brown and Sherman."

Commenting on this advertisement, A. W. Ellis, an advertising agent, said, "I believe if the efforts of copy writers were as frank, as direct and as simple as this advertisement that the returns from advertising would be many times greater than they are." The advertisement is characterized by simplicity, brevity, directness, and force, all of which are essential elements of good style in copy. (Exercise 21.)

Truth in attractive form convinces and leads to action. Not only should an advertisement be truthful, but all of the statements that are contained in it should have the appearance of truth. The "best in the world" should not be so advertised because of the apparent extravagance of statement. (Exercise 22.)

Illustration.

The most obvious reason for the use of illustration in advertising is its power of attracting and directing attention. Aside from this, however, if an illustration is relevant, it serves to interest, to interpret, to suggest, to convince, and thus to assist in bringing about desired action.

Relevancy of Illustration.

As we have seen, an illustration may so overshadow the rest of an advertisement in attention value as to make the advertisement as a whole of practically no effect in the selling of goods. This, of course, is extreme; but to avoid too great a tendency to focus attention on the illustration as such, that

which is pictured should be closely related to that which is advertised. (Exercise 23.)

Simplicity of Illustration.

The purpose of a relevant illustration in an advertisement is to convey meaning at a glance, quickly to tell a story, to describe, or to suggest. To do this, it must be simple. As an illustration becomes complex, it loses the power of quick expression, and therefore cannot be readily interpreted.

The Human Figure in Advertisements.

Because we are interested in ourselves we are interested in our kind, and are naturally attracted to pictures of human beings. When a human being is attractively portrayed in a way that suggests action, the illustration has great attention and interest value. We at once want to know the motive of the action. Such an illustration is especially valuable in advertising. (Exercise 24.)

Atmosphere.

Illustrations and borders sometimes result in what is known as "atmosphere" in advertisements. In order to emphasize quality, for example, a high priced automobile may always be shown in an environment that is suggestive of wealth, or in connection with people so portrayed as to convey the same idea. The manufacturers of a well known kind of soap have long made use of "atmosphere" in their advertisements to direct attention to the purity of their product. So skillfully has this been done that their advertisements, though frequently changed, may often be recognized by the atmospheric feature alone. Peo-

ple have become interested in the artistic skill displayed in the atmospheric features of these advertisements, and readily give attention to anything new that the company brings out. (Exercise 25.)

Layout.

In regard to the layout there are many things that may require consideration: the size and shape of the advertisement; the size, number and position of illustrations; the selection and position of display lines, catch-words, slogans, trade-marks, coupons; the use of borders; the use of white space; and the kinds and sizes of type that will be most appropriate.

Proportion.

The space to be paid for is usually square or oblong. The perfect square does not appear to be square, and is considered unpleasing. To make the apparent square pleasing to the eye, its base should be longer than its perpendicular. The reason for this is the fact that the eye in reading is accustomed to move horizontally, and so passes more readily over a horizontal line than over a vertical one of the same length. The most pleasing form of the rectangle is known as the "golden oblong" or "golden section." Its proportions are .382 to .618, or practically three to five. Mr. George French thinks that in an advertisement that is inclosed with a rule or border the proportions of four to six are preferable. (Exercise 26.)

In a long, vertical rectangle, the space is often artistically utilized by dividing it into sections that approximate the "golden oblong"; by using combinations of oblongs, squares, ovals, and circles; and

by arranging the reading matter so that it naturally leads from one section to another. If ovals are used, they, too, should conform, as far as may be, to the proportions that have been given. (Exercise 27.)

Illustrations.

Illustrations are centers of attention, and should not be so numerous as to cause attention to be scattered. They should be so located that they will direct attention to that which is advertised. For this reason, ordinarily a human being pictured in an advertisement should not face outward. The principle of balance should be kept in mind in the arrangement of illustrations in relation to the various portions of printed matter. (Exercise 28.)

Display.

The purpose of display lines in an advertisement is to attract attention, to increase legibility, and to give a quick impression of what the advertisement contains.

The most important display line, and sometimes the only one, is the headline. Much depends upon this, and it should be chosen with great care. It should have great attention value, as much interest value as can be packed into it, and should be so brief and so well printed and located that it will convey its meaning instantaneously. The headline should keep as close to an "eyeful", estimated at not more than an inch square, as the size of the advertisement will permit. It should be placed about one-fourth of the way down the advertisement. This is where the eye naturally looks first. If it is especially desirable to increase the attention value of the headline, it may

be printed in red or some other attractive color, or set in "reverse" resulting in white letters in a dark background. If the headline is the principal attention-gaining feature, and is not printed in color or set in reverse, it should have a liberal allowance of white space. The attention value of display type is said to vary almost directly with its size. (Exercise 29.)

If there are other display lines, they should be subordinate to the headline, and should be limited to the small number required to effect transition from one important feature to another. Display lines compete with one another for attention, and should be used sparingly. Those that are used should be so related that when followed in regular order they will give the outlined meaning of the advertisement. (Exercise 30.)

Borders.

A border is primarily a unifying element in an advertisement. It separates one advertisement from other advertisements, and helps it to stand by itself. Unless a border has a purpose aside from that indicated, it is not greatly needed in "spreads" or in full page advertisements. Borders, however, if decorative, are likely to have special attention value, and, if relevant, may be of value in various ways. (Exercise 31.)

Type.

A printing company advertises "we make type talk". That is just what we want type to do; and in order that it may talk effectively, its chief characteristic should be that it is easy to understand.

Next in importance is attractive appearance; and third, distinctive character. As an aid to legibility, lines, sentences, and paragraphs should be short.

Capital display lines are less legible than those that are set in lower case, and therefore their use in advertisements should be quite narrowly limited. A few words in capitals may sometimes be needed to add strength to the structure of an advertisement, or to attract special attention. (Exercise 32.)

Most advertisements advertise a product rather than a firm or place of business. For that reason, as a usual thing, the name and address of the advertiser should appear but once in an advertisement, and should not be too conspicuous. There are instances, however, in which the name should be featured. A Tiffany advertisement, for example, without the name conspicuously shown would lose much of its drawing power. In local advertising, also, the name may be featured more than would be advisable in that which is intended for a wider reading. (Exercise 33.)

Exercises.

The following exercises are to be used in connection with the text. Properly worked out, they serve to fix in mind what has been studied concerning the theory of advertising, and furnish the basis for interesting and profitable discussion in class.

1. Hand in list of mediums that might be used by an advertising manager in a department store.
2. Study car cards, if you have opportunity to do so.

3. Notice store fronts in regard to their adaptability to window display.

4. Study window displays in regard to (1) unity of expression; (2) color scheme; (3) lighting; (4) decoration; (5) balance; (6) massing.

5. Bring advertisements, and be ready to discuss their attention-gaining features as to relevancy and effectiveness.

6. Bring advertisements (a) that fulfill these conditions; (b) that do not fulfill these conditions.

7. Bring advertisements that have too many attention-gaining features.

8. Bring advertisements (a) that show good use of space to gain attention; (b) that show poor use of space in this respect.

9. Bring advertisements (a) that conform to the ideas of this paragraph; (b) that do not conform.

10. Make list of illustrations that you recall from having repeatedly seen them in advertisements.

11. Bring advertisements in which the illustrations suggest movement.

12. Bring two advertisements in which the human figure has attention value only, and two in which it has interest value also.

13. (a) Bring small advertisements that have good attention value. (b) Bring advertisements that are likely to be passed over because of slight attention value.

14. Bring list of definite suggestions found in advertisements.

15. Bring list of direct commands found in ad vertisements.

16. Bring advertisements that show misleading connections.

17. Bring advertisements that are too general in regard to what they advertise.

18. Bring advertisements that embody all or nearly all of these features.

19. Bring advertisements that appeal to two or more senses.

20. Bring advertisements that are especially educational.

21. Bring short advertisements excellent in style.

22. Bring exaggerations that you have found in advertisements.

23. Bring advertisements with good, relevant illustrations.

24. Bring advertisements with illustrations that suggest good or bad human action.

25. Bring advertisements that have atmosphere.

26. Bring advertisements that have the "golden section" proportions, or that approximate them closely.

27. Bring long, slim advertisements showing divisions into squares, oblongs, ovals, and circles. Explain connections.

28. Bring advertisements that do not conform to these ideas.

29. Bring advertisements (a) with good headlines; (b) with faulty headlines.

30. Bring advertisements (a) with several good display lines well arranged; (b) with several display lines poorly arranged.

31. Bring advertisements that have relevant borders.

32. Bring advertisements that have too many capitals.

33. Bring full page advertisement and analyze it.

Questions and Topics.

1. Definition of advertising.
2. Principal function of commercial advertising.
3. Social significance of advertising.
4. Amounts paid for advertising.
5. Of what advantage is advertising to the producer and the seller?
6. Effect of advertising on quality of commodities.
7. Effect of large scale industry on quality of product.
8. Advertising and decreased price.
9. Advertising and increased price.
10. a. Why is long continued advertising a guaranty of quality?
    b. What is the slogan of the Associated Advertising Clubs of the World? Why was it chosen?
11. a. Advertising that is opposed to the interests of the buyer.
    b. Tendency in regard to such advertising.
12. Relation of commercial advertising to selling.
13. Salesman's knowledge of what has been advertised.
14. Conferences between advertising manager and salesmen.
15. a. In planning an advertising campaign, what five things should be first considered?
    b. If the outlook is favorable, what other things demand consideration?

16. Difficulty in selecting mediums.
17. Morning and evening papers as mediums.
18. To what kind of advertising is the newspaper peculiarly adapted? Why?
19. In the study of advertising, why is the magazine the most attractive field?
20. Comparison of newspapers and magazines as mediums.
21. a. Influence of publication as a factor in advertising.
    b. Tendency in regard to standard of advertising.
    c. Effect of high standard upon value of advertising.
22. To be properly productive, why should an advertisement be well placed? Explain.
23. a. Space and position in street car advertising.
    b. Why are successful street car advertisements of special interest?
    c. Requisites of a good car card.
24. a. Purpose of car cards.
    b. Why are car cards effective.
    c. Subtle influence of car cards.
25. What two things indicate increased appreciation of the value of window display?
26. A notable advantage of window display.
27. Explain two general lines of policy in window display.
28. Unity of impression in window display.
29. Balance in window display.
30. Movement in window display.
31. a. To what are window displays excellently adapted?

b. Why should they be frequently changed? Explain.

32. a. Advantages of large space as compared with small.
    b. Disadvantages.
33. a. Proportional attention value of a half page and a page.
    b. Tendency as to size of advertisements.
34. Variation in size of advertisements of different products.
35. Use of medium space.
36. a. Variation in size of advertisements in different seasons.
    b. Regularity in appearance of advertisements.
37. a. In newspapers and magazines, what part of a page is preferred for advertisements? Why?
    b. Coupons.
38. First, second, and third preferred positions in newspapers.
39. a. First, second, and third preferred positions in magazines.
    b. Their comparative attention value.
    c. Other positions.
40. a. Professor Thorndike's definition of psychology.
    b. Why is it especially applicable to advertising? Explain.
41. What should an advertisement do? Explain.
42. a. Comparison of some of the preparatory work of the writer of copy with the pre-approach of the salesman.
    b. Explain "composite person."

43. a. To what should the advertisement attract attention?
    b. Attracting attention to things not related to that which is advertised.
44. a. Arrangement of attention-gaining features.
    b. Number of attention-gaining features.
45. Why should an advertisement make a quick and unified impression?
46. a. In an advertisement how should the new be introduced?
    b. Demands of unity.
47. Contrast as an attention-gaining feature.
48. Successive attention-gaining features.
49. Attention value of illustrations.
50. Incident related by Mr. McKinney.
51. Which has the advantage in making a sale, the salesman or the writer of copy? Why?
52. The human figure in advertising.
53. The advertisement and conviction.
54. a. In relation to decision, what is usually the purpose of advertising? Examples.
    b. Comparison of direct mail and mail-order sales with sales made by salesmen.
55. Means used in advertisements to induce action. Examples.
56. Main problems of copy.
57. Characteristics of copy-writer.
58. Thorndike's five principles.
59. Application of fifth principle to advertising.
60. Whose goods to advertise.
61. a. Of what does good copy usually consist?
    b. With what does it deal?

62. a. Number of things featured.
    b. Explain focal ideas. Examples.
63. a. Purpose of appeal in advertising.
    b. Obstacles in the way of accomplishing this purpose.
64. How can you make your appeals cause your prospect to think along the lines that you mark out?
65. Relation between your appeals and the interests of your prospects.
66. Appeal and the composite prospect.
67. Appeal and the desire for satisfaction. Examples.
68. What knowledge is necessary in order to make intelligent selections?
69. a. The need of educational argument.
    b. What is "Reason Why" copy?
    c. Quotation from Printers' Ink.
70. Giving reason why you make offer.
71. Advertising new uses.
72. Style of a good advertisement.
73. Good points in Bobbie Humes's advertisement.
74. Appearance of truthfulness.
75. Reasons for illustration in advertising.
76. Why should the subject of an illustration be closely related to that which is advertised?
77. Why should an illustration be simple?
78. The human figure in advertisements.
79. a. Example of "atmosphere" in an advertisement.
    b. Value of "atmosphere" in an advertisement.
80. a. What is the problem of the layout?

b. In working out this problem, what things are to be considered?

81. a. Peculiarity of the square.
    b. The golden section.
82. Utilization of long, vertical, rectangle.
83. a. Number of illustrations.
    b. Location of illustrations.
    c. Balance.
84. The purpose of display.
85. Why is the headline especially important?
86. Treatment of headline.
87. Treatment of other display lines.
88. Borders.
89. Making type talk.
90. Use of capitals.
91. Treatment of name and address.

A Word in Closing.

It is believed that we have touched upon most of the topics of first importance in advertising as a whole. A few of second rank in relation to advertising in general have been mentioned, slogans, trade-names, trade-marks, etc., and in special cases these may be of primary import. To many topics of minor interest there has been no reference.

You have seen that the field of advertising is a broad one, and it should be evident to you that marked success in that field depends either upon exceptional adaptability to the work that advertising requires, or upon good ability increased by extensive preparation.

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